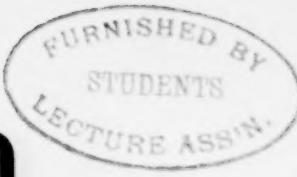


The Nation



VOL. LVI—NO. 1460.

THURSDAY, JUNE 22, 1893.

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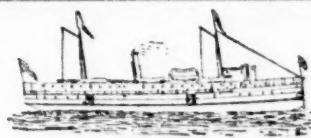
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 22, 1893.

The Week.

WHETHER or not the President shall call Congress together earlier than September 1, the canvasses which the *World* and *Times* have been making of the members show beyond reasonable doubt that a majority can be counted upon for unconditional repeal of the Sherman Act. The *World*, by combining its own and the *Times's* returns, shows a total of 175 members in favor of repeal, or only four less than a majority of the whole House of Representatives. Of this total, 140 have expressed themselves in favor of unconditional repeal, 11 in favor of repeal with slight qualifications, and 24 voted for repeal in the last Congress. The *Times* has a total of 151 squarely committed to unconditional repeal, which is identical with the *World's* poll, giving the same grand total when the twenty-four members who voted against repeal in the last Congress are added. The *Times* has also heard from thirty-nine of the eighty-eight Senators, with this result: Twenty-eight in favor of repeal, seven against, and four undecided. If this proportion is a fair representation of Senate sentiment, there will be no doubt about the action of that body. As a matter of fact, a previous canvass of the Senate by the *World* has shown a safe majority in that body in favor of repeal. Every day is adding new members to the majority for repeal by increasing the volume of popular sentiment against the Sherman Act. In fact, we doubt if at any previous period in their history the American people made more rapid progress in economic education than they are making at the present time.

There is encouragement in the report from Washington that the Administration means to listen to no compromise in the matter of repealing the Sherman Law. We believe that the friends of sound money cannot do better than to insist upon the naked issue of repeal, unencumbered with any of the propositions "to force silver into circulation" or to have the Government "issue money to the people directly," which the silverites are now bringing forward as the necessary concomitants of repeal. Let action first be had on the mischievous law which a great majority of Congressmen now agree has got us into the ditch, and let all the fine schemes for getting an "elastic currency" and meeting "the demands of trade" have a hearing later and be passed on their own merits, if they have any. The inherited and inveterate tendency of politicians to make a dicker, and not to re-

treat from a bad position without taking up one not quite so bad, ought to be withheld to the face in so vital a matter as a stable currency. Compromise in finance has landed us in our present plight, and that experience ought to be enough for this generation. If, as Lowell said, they enslave their children's children who make compromise with sin, it is just as certain that to compromise with the devil of fiat money and shifting standards of value is not only to sell your own soul to the Evil One, but to give him the whip-hand of your successors for a long time to come.

Apparently the sentiment in favor of repealing the Federal tax upon the issues of State banks is much weaker than was supposed. Even in the South, where such a policy was expected to prove very popular, there is strong opposition, among both Congressmen and editors. The Richmond *Dispatch* argues earnestly against "substituting a currency which will not circulate in the money centres for a currency which is as good in the cities as in the country and in business circles as anywhere else"; and it warns the Congressmen who expect to vote for repealing the State-bank tax, because they flatter themselves that they will thus pacify the silverites and secure forgiveness for voting to repeal the Sherman Law, that they "reckon without their host."

That candid Republican journal, the *Philadelphia Ledger*, makes short work of the partisan organs which allege that the present financial troubles are due to "Democratic rule." It points out that the existing conditions were forced upon the Cleveland Administration by its Republican predecessor, and that the responsibility for the origin and continuance of the Sherman Act, to which Republicans themselves now ascribe our troubles, "lies wholly and solely upon the shoulders of the Republican party," since its responsible author was Senator Sherman, a Republican, it was passed by a Republican Senate and a Republican House, and approved by a Republican President, and its repeal was prevented last spring by the large number of Republican Senators and Representatives who voted against its repeal, for the indefensible reason, given by a leading Senator in an authorized interview, that it would be "good politics" to let the act remain as "a Pandora's box" to embarrass and harass the incoming Democratic Administration. The American people may not be as wise as they ought to be, but they are not such fools as those Republican editors take them to be who try to make them believe that President Cleveland and the Democratic party are responsible for the present financial troubles.

It is not wise to leap prematurely to the conclusion that the United States is at once to resume the importation of gold. Sterling exchange, it is true, has turned decidedly in our favor, and rules now nominally below the figure at which gold may be imported at a profit. Nevertheless, the fact should not be overlooked that these are abnormal quotations, due to the present local money strain. According to precedent, there should be a considerable upward reaction in rates before the normal market yields permanently. The London newspapers have been quite generally predicting specie exports at an early date to New York; but the predictions have been largely based on expectation of a United States bond issue, which of course would upset all ordinary calculations. The London *Economist's* Vienna correspondent, who has all along been the best informed writer on current Austrian finance, observes, under date of June 7, that "the scare that the United States might want their gold back again is unnecessary, all the more as the United States foreign commerce is not such as to attract European gold." This remark on our present foreign trade is justified by the facts, but it is possible that future inferences may be too liberally drawn from it. In the years 1891 and 1892, it will be remembered, when the foreign trade movement was turning rapidly in our favor, gold went out at a rapid rate; the subsequent explanation being that French financiers were selling wheat futures in our market and buying exchange against them, reckoning—rightly, as the event proved—on lower prices later on for grain. It cannot have escaped notice that precisely the reverse operation is now going on, and that the sales of bills under which the sterling market has broken are on anticipatory purchases of wheat, deliveries of which will not fall due till later in the year. In other words, the figures of current exports and imports are no longer a true guide to the course of the sterling market.

The unanimous decision of the United States Court of Appeals in favor of opening the World's Fair on Sunday finally settles that much-disputed question, and settles it in a way which is right, not only when regarded as an issue of law, but also as a matter of public morals. The contention that Congress could by any device enact a law which would decide how the people in a particular locality of a certain State should observe Sunday, and which would debar them from entrance to a certain park on that day, seemed hopeless from the outset. Everybody will at once concede that Congress cannot assume control over Central Park in New York city or Prospect Park in Brooklyn, and decree on

what days or between what hours the public shall visit these pleasure grounds. It has no more right to claim control over Jackson Park in Chicago, whether a World's Fair is in progress there or not. The pretence that such right could be conferred upon it by any sort of a bargain about a gift of money from the Federal Treasury is untenable, for no bargain can make an unconstitutional act constitutional. Chief Justice Fuller and his associates have vindicated the principle of home rule and State rights in a case where the contrary decision would have meant a long step toward centralization.

Ex-President Harrison, having been quoted in Monday's press despatches as approving the opening of the World's Fair on Sunday, telegraphed to an evening paper that this had been done "without authority." As to the ruling of Chief-Justice Fuller, he modestly thought he could not express a "safe opinion without an examination of the briefs and the pleadings." Still, he was "inclined to believe" that the Court was wrong in ruling out all "injuries not strictly pecuniary." Mr. Harrison ought to be given the benefit of this explanation of his position, and we merely remark upon it that his inclination to reverse decisions of the courts is by no means a new one. The findings of the Chilian court were flimsiness itself before his superior mind, and when Judge Brown let the gas out of his international law in the *Itata* case, he made it clear, in a message to Congress, that he had a very poor opinion of that member of the bench.

Clerical authorities among the Methodists do not agree as to the way in which the impiety of opening the Chicago Fair on Sunday is to be punished. The Rev. Dr. McAnney of Tarrytown, it will be remembered, recently declared that "the Lord knows how to close the doors of the Fair on Sundays, and he will do it," and as one of the "tough instruments" he might use for the purpose, suggested that he might "let the cholera spread its black wings over us this summer, and let 10,000,000 people die of this dread disease." But the Rev. Dr. Buckley, editor of the *Christian Advocate*, ridicules this notion. He declares that "God does not thus confound the righteous with the wicked," and says that "the whole tenor of New Testament teaching is against the idea of destructive judgments upon cities and nations as the result of the sins of certain men." He even goes so far as to say that, "should countless thousands die of the disease, lightning strike the largest building of the Exposition, and the President of the Board of Directors die in the wreck, it would not raise a presumption that God had sent these things as judgments." As we called attention to the brutal conception of the Deity advanced by Dr. McAnney, it is only fair to give equal prominence to Dr. Buckley's condemnation of it.

The *Tribune* is so distressed about the partisan composition of the Commission which is investigating the Appraiser's Office, that it really cannot consent to print the evidence brought forth from the Republican employees. It came out at the session on June 14 that a representative of the domestic woollen manufacturers was allowed to visit the rooms of the division in which the examination and appraisement of woollens, raw wool, carpets, etc., were conducted, and to make suggestions about the invoices, which he was accustomed to find were lower than they should be. After much pumping, the Assistant Appraiser in charge of the division admitted that this visitor came daily, that he was in the employ of the Woollen Association, and that he had no other occupation. It was admitted by Mr. Cooper, the Appraiser, when he was under examination, that representatives of the American Silk-Manufacturing Association had free run of the Appraiser's Stores, and it appears to have been the general practice of those in charge of this branch of the service to allow it to be used by American manufacturers for their benefit and to the detriment of importers of foreign goods. Small wonder that the *Tribune* is full of wrath at Secretary Carllie for revealing this method of conducting the Government's business in the interest of the Republican party and a high tariff.

The examination of Assistant Appraiser Goode at the Custom-house on Tuesday week was as good as a play. He had been a plasterer until he was appointed a Government appraiser to appraise cotton and linen goods, rubber garments and lace curtains, about a year ago. The way he found out the value of goods was by comparing importers' invoices. He never read any trade paper, though they took one from Dundee. All he knew about different kinds of bagging from Calcutta was that they were all "just bagging." About Dundee bagging he knew nothing, but he did know that Dundee was in Scotland. The duty on bagging he could tell by looking at the tariff law "up stairs." He could not give the market value abroad of any article. About laces he knew nothing, but as to cottons he had "been through some factories in Cohoes." No new examiner could learn anything from him, he said, in forty years, but if they let him (Goode) stay in for eight or ten years, he would know something about the business in that time himself, whereat there was a general roar of laughter, led by Goode himself. This is the way foreign trade is fostered, and American manufactures protected, and the tariff commended to a long-suffering but humorous people.

When the McKinley tariff went into effect, the Canadian authorities began to make unusual exertions to dispose elsewhere of the farm products which, by its

provisions, were heavily taxed when they entered this country. Information obtained through special agents sent to Great Britain and from the High Commissioner—Sir Charles Tupper—concerning the needs of the British market, prices current therein, and the manner of packing goods, etc., etc., was given to the public by Mr. George E. Foster, the Canadian Minister of Finance, in the form of bulletins, and the result is astounding. From a Parliamentary report lately published, entitled "Commercial Relations, Canada," we learn that the export of eggs to Great Britain rose from \$820 in 1890 to \$592,218 in 1892, and the export of horses from \$17,925 in 1890 to \$214,785 in 1892. The Minister of Finance furnishes a table of exports supporting his assertion that, "generally speaking, the decrease in the export of these articles [farm products] to the United States in consequence of their tariff legislation has been far more than compensated by the increased exports to Great Britain." This table shows a decrease in exports of animals and produce and agricultural products to the United States in 1892 as compared with 1890 of \$4,976,024, and an increase of exports to Great Britain of \$16,947,313. Sir Charles Tupper remarks that the exports of Canada, notwithstanding the falling off in the trade to the United States, reached a total in 1892 never before attained—the increase in the exports to Great Britain being nearly twenty million dollars.

The verdict of the Coroner's jury on the Ford's Theatre disaster charges with "criminal negligence" Col. Ainsworth and the three persons, including the contractor, who were conducting the alterations in the building at the time, and also pronounces "most unbusinesslike and reprehensible" the failure of the United States Government to provide for skilled superintendence of the work of repair. All this may be just, but as it is to be made a matter of thorough inquiry by the Grand Jury, it is not a fit subject for comment at present. It is proper to say, however, that the real culprit in this sad business is Congressional niggardliness, which for years has refused to allow sufficient appropriations for the needs of the service of the War Department. The conduct of successive Congresses in this regard is of a piece with their conduct in regard to all other appropriations in which there is "nothing for politics." All branches of the service have suffered in this respect—none more so than the naval service, the life-saving service, and the postal service. When it is a question of pensions, or river and harbor improvements, or public buildings, money is thrown away by millions, but when something really deserving is under consideration, with no "politics" in it, every hundred dollars is scrutinized by the Holmans and other so called watch-dogs of the Treasury, and usually only a fraction of what is absolutely needed is granted.

A noteworthy sign of the small favor now lent the Hawaiian annexation project is furnished by the fact that the recent Republican State Convention in Ohio did not say a word on the subject in its platform. At the League of Republican Clubs in Louisville a few weeks ago much was said about the disgrace which Cleveland had brought upon the country by "hauling down the flag where gallant Ben Harrison and the Republicans ran it up in the name of liberty on the Sandwich Islands," and a resolution was adopted declaring that "when the American flag covers American interests and American honor, it must never be lowered." But the Ohio Republicans neither "pointed with pride" to Harrison's act, nor "viewed with alarm" Cleveland's course. Apparently the party managers have concluded that there are no votes to be gained by advocating annexation.

A Harvard student who had some negro blood in his veins was recently refused attention in a Cambridge barber-shop, and the Legislature promptly passed a law forbidding any barber in the State to make such a discrimination. The proprietors of the most prominent barber-shops in Boston protest against the measure as an injustice to them, saying that, if it should be enforced, it would cause such loss of white patronage that they would have to close their places. They are doubtless right, for the prejudice of the average white man against the black man is strong in Boston. But probably the new law will soon become a dead letter. It is not hard for any barber to shave a man in such a manner that he will vow never to enter his shop again, and the barber who does not desire the patronage of any class of the community can protect himself more easily by a few cuts than any other class of public servants. Before next winter the episode will doubtless have been forgotten, and black men will not be seen in white barber-shops any more frequently than heretofore.

Boston is the one city in the country which has an ordinance forbidding public employees to take part in conventions or to act as officers of caucuses. An attempt has just been made to secure its repeal, but the veto of Mayor Matthews prevents its success. Nearly half the members of the Democratic City Committee were office-holders of one sort or another before the ordinance was passed, whereas now there is not one. An attempt was made in the Legislature to extend the reform by passing a law which would prevent State and county employees from being officers in caucuses or from taking part in the proceedings of any political committee or convention; but the Republicans, who would be most affected by such a movement, refused to pass it. Naturally enough, many of the Boston Democrats thought that they ought not to be debarred from holding

office and running conventions at the same time so long as the Republicans throughout the State were under no restraint in the matter, but Mayor Matthews was wiser, and interposed a veto which will prove effective.

There has been nothing in judicial or journalistic annals like the way the Borden case has been tried by the newspapers of New York, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. Of course, the Court has no jurisdiction over those of other States, and therefore could not completely put a stop to the scandal, but some effort ought to have been made, in the interest of the decent and orderly administration of justice, to call public attention to the gravity of the offence. It used to be a cardinal rule of editors to refrain from comment in criminal cases pending the trial, but this was in the days when newspapers were really edited—that is, when there was a sense of editorial responsibility for the contents of the whole paper. Since the gathering of what is called "news" has assumed its present importance, this responsibility has almost ceased to exist, and the reporters, however young, inexperienced, or unscrupulous, have taken complete possession of the journal, and "run" it to suit themselves. It is not surprising, in the presence of this state of things, that the public should take hold of a criminal case, as in the Harris case, even after the court of last resort has passed on it, and propose a review of the evidence at a mass meeting, and that the newspapers should open their columns to epistolary denunciations of the Judge for his cruelty and inhumanity in refusing a new trial.

There is as yet very little use in predicting the probable effect of the German elections on the Army Bill, which is what gives them their chief interest. It was on the Army Bill that the Emperor dissolved the Reichstag and "went to the country," but what the country has said about the matter is still, and must for a week or two remain, very uncertain. The composition of the candidates chosen is pretty heterogeneous, as may be seen by the despatches—Lieber Clericals, Social Democrats, Conservatives and Agrarians, National Liberals, Radical Unionists, Poles, Free Conservatives, Clericals favorable to the bill, Alsatians, South German Democrats, Anti-Semites, Bavarian Agrarians, Guelphs, Danes, Bavarians, Separatists. The chances are that a large proportion of these candidates do not know how they will vote on the bill until they meet their colleagues and talk over the situation. It is asserted that Count Caprivi and the Ministers are counting on the alarm excited by the successes of the Socialists to enable them to get up a new "cartel," or combination, made up of Conservatives, Free Conservatives, and National Liberals, which

would give them a majority and secure the passage of the bill. But this looks very like a fool's paradise, or like the toper's cure for a headache—"a little of the hair of the dog that bit you." It is plain to everybody in Germany, as plain as cause and effect ever are in politics, that the growth of the Socialists is due to the Army Bill and to the view of German home and foreign policy of which the Army Bill is the expression.

There is another agency at work which is likely to affect the minds of the deputies seriously when they get to work, and that is Count Kálmoky's speech on the prospects of peace. This speech annoyed Count Caprivi considerably when delivered, because it seemed to knock some of the supports from under the Kaiser's military policy. But the speech has, nevertheless, produced a deep impression all over Europe. The fierce denunciations of it by the German military press before the election showed that the military party thought it likely to affect the prospects of their bill unfavorably. It was, however, received with great satisfaction all over the Continent, and sent prices up on all the Continental bourses. Many are now disposed to think that Kálmoky took too favorable a view of the situation, in order to help the great financial operation in which Austria is engaged, and that Russia is not really as peaceably disposed, or the state of things in the Balkan States as reassuring, as he made out. This may be so, but the fact remains that the Minister of one of the two leading States of the Triple Alliance has published to the world an expression of his solemn belief that there is no reason to apprehend war in the near future, and that therefore impliedly the German preparations are unnecessary. This must have a great influence in stiffening the opposition of all who have hitherto had any doubts about the expediency of the Army Bill, as well as of those who have hitherto opposed it.

The report of the directors of the Suez Canal for the year 1892 contains the latest bit of evidence that the French policy of subsidizing shipping has not prevented French tonnage from continuing to decline. An appendix showing the nationality of the vessels using the canal during the year mentioned gives the following figures:

	Vessels.	Vessels.	
British	2,581	Portuguese	23
German	262	Russian	22
Dutch	177	Greek	6
French	174	Belgian	4
Italian	74	Japanese	3
Norwegian	64	American	2
Austro-Hungarian	61	Chinese	2
Ottoman	43	Egyptian	2
Spanish	26	Siamese	1

For a long time after the opening of the canal, France was second in the number of vessels, then she was passed by Germany, and now she has had to yield third place to Holland.

MR. CARLISLE'S STATEMENT.

THE country exhibits all the symptoms of a patient suffering from a low fever of the financial type. There is no acute crisis, no series of great business and banking crashes, but a widespread feeling of uncertainty, lack of confidence, tightening of credit, and a continual report of failures of the weaker establishments in various parts of the land. In his authorized interview on June 13, Secretary Carlisle was like a skilled physician stepping to the bedside of the sick man, pushing away the quacks and herb-doctors who were thrusting their explanations and remedies upon him, and giving a lucid and unanswerable diagnosis of the disease which is making the mischief.

Mr. Carlisle has long been famous for his power of statement. His speeches in both House and Senate, on economic and financial subjects, have often extorted praise from his opponents for their judicial candor and weighty fairness. Whatever may have been felt and said about his appointment as Secretary of the Treasury, and whatever regrets some of his administrative acts have caused, no one has ever questioned his possession of precisely those mental qualities which the situation calls for—the power to tear the heart out of a great mass of statistics, and to present his conclusions with an order and clearness which leave his adversaries hopelessly gnawing files. It will be his own fault if he does not make a great reputation as a financier within the next three years, as he has now as clear a field for such an achievement as ever fell to man. He is fortunate in his predecessor, after whom any man might seem brilliant; he is fortunate in the situation, which now is of itself more promising for financial reform than it has been for twenty years; he is fortunate in his antecedents, himself a Southerner, with Southerners as the chief obstacle to a sound financial policy, and he the fittest of men to persuade them to take themselves out of the way.

He made a most excellent beginning last week, and it is certain that his calm and reasoned statement will go with great force to the people upon whom the President has called to avert the financial dangers threatening the country. His words are all the more effective for mentioning no names and naming no parties, indulging in no recriminations and making no partisan appeals, and simply striking home with the cold steel of truth. He says nothing specific as to the frantic cries about demonetization of silver and the "dollar of the fathers," so shrill in 1878; but his plain abstract from the records of the United States Mint, showing that, from the foundation of the Government up to 1878, there had been coined only 8,045,838 silver dollars, while since that date there have been coined 419,294,835, is better than invective to unmask the folly and fraud which were behind the Bland Bill and the Sherman Law.

All that the promoters of those measures professed to want to do was to go back to the condition of things before 1873, when silver coinage was stopped, and keep on in the good old safe way; what they have really done, as revealed by Secretary Carlisle's statement, is to coin in fifteen years more than fifty times as many silver dollars as "the fathers" did in eighty-one years, and to give us inflation and a depreciated currency.

Equally searching is his probing of the Sherman Law for the purchase of silver bullion without coining it. He shows that the Treasury—which means the people—is in for a loss of \$10,888,530 on the silver for which it has paid \$114,299,920. This is drawing it mild, for it supposes that the silver is now salable at the market price, whereas everybody knows that if it were to be offered in a lump, the price would break like Reading or Cordage in a panicky market.

But perhaps the most effective part of the Secretary's whole statement is his demonstration of the fact that the embarrassments of the Treasury, the cutting down of the gold reserve, and the prospect of having to incur debt, are all due to the continued purchase of silver bullion. As a compact and conclusive proof of the huge stupidity and peril of this continued purchase, no form of words could be better than his own:

"The records of the Treasury Department show that during the eleven months beginning May 31, 1892, and ending May 1, 1893, the coin Treasury notes issued for the purchase of silver bullion under the Act of July 14, 1890, amounted to \$49,961,184, and that during the same period the amount of such notes paid in gold was \$47,745,173. It thus appears that all the silver bullion purchased during that time, except \$2,216,011 worth, was paid for in gold, while the bullion itself is stored in the vaults of the Treasury and can neither be sold nor used for the payment of any kind of obligation. How long the Government shall thus be compelled to purchase silver bullion and increase the public debt by issuing coin obligations in payment for it, is a question which Congress alone can answer. It is evident that if this policy is continued, and the Secretary of the Treasury shall be compelled to issue bonds or otherwise increase the interest-bearing public debt, it will be done for the purpose of procuring gold with which to pay for silver bullion purchased under the act referred to."

This will be especially valuable for shutting the mouths of those silver-men who indignantly deny that it is really the gold guarantee of the Government that keeps up the silver dollar, which would drop like so much lead but for this. They are all the while quoting triumphantly the letters which Treasurer Nebeker and Secretary Foster wrote in 1892, averring that silver dollars were not exchanged for gold at the Treasury. This is a mere quibble on the word "dollar," and ought never to lift its head again after Mr. Carlisle's demonstration from the books of the Treasury that, in fact, the silver purchases are paid for in gold, that the Treasury notes are redeemable in gold, and that we shall speedily be driven, unless the Sherman Law is repealed, to borrow gold with one hand and pay it out to the silver-miners with the other.

QUEER DOINGS OF THE PROTECTIVE TARIFF.

THE facts which were brought out in the Supreme Court of this city a few days ago about the assignment which Edward H. Ammidown made in December, 1890, ought to send "gloom" throughout all high-tariff circles. Since the collapse and exposure of the business methods of John F. Plummer, earlier in the year 1890, nothing at all comparable to the Ammidown revelations has appeared. It will be remembered that Mr. Ammidown was the foremost representative of the "Republican business man" in the campaign of 1888. He was a wholesale dealer in dry goods, and was also President of the American Protective Tariff League. In this latter capacity he was the nominal editor of the *American Economist*, or official organ of the League. His hatred of "British free trade" and all its advocates and minions in this country amounted almost to a frenzy, and in the early days of the campaign of 1888 he circulated the famous British-flag card, with its batch of forged British press extracts, by the million, keeping up that circulation long after the forgeries had been exposed.

After the election was over in 1888, and Gen. Harrison was chosen to the Presidency, it was expected by their admirers that Messrs. Ammidown and Plummer would have a great deal to do with "shaping the policy" of the new Administration, especially in regard to the tariff. They were in frequent consultation with the new President before and after his inauguration, and undoubtedly were powerful factors in the tremendous task of getting campaign debts paid in the McKinley Bill. Plummer, in fact, toiled so hard in helping the good work forward that he neglected his business more than ever, and the sad consequence was that he was obliged to fail on March 19, 1890. When his affairs came to be examined, the most surprising feature of them was the almost total lack of assets. Several explanations were advanced to account for the chaotic and irregular condition of the affairs of one of the leading business statesmen of his time, but the only one which at all covered the case was to the effect that Mr. Plummer, while absorbed in questions of state, had been deceived by a confidential partner in whom he placed absolute trust.

Mr. Ammidown kept his business in motion till after the McKinley Law began its beneficent course, but it was not powerful enough to save him. He made an assignment on December 6, 1890, and it was said at the time that he was only temporarily embarrassed. This assignment has now been subjected to judicial examination, and the verdict of Judge Andrews upon it is that it "was made to hinder, delay, and defraud creditors," and as such is set aside. It was shown during the examination that, when he assigned, Ammidown had liabilities of about \$700,000, that he assigned his interest in the firm,

estimated at \$150,000, to the junior partner personally, and not as assignee for the benefit of the creditors, and that he drew \$24,000 of his private funds from his bankers a few days before his assignment, which amount was not accounted for in the schedules. It was shown also that he had departed for Europe in April, 1891, a few days before he was to be examined in supplementary proceedings on an order secured by one of his creditors, depriving himself in his haste to get away of the pleasure of being present at the great McKinley Bill banquet of the American Protective Tariff League, which was celebrated in the Madison Square Garden Concert Hall on April 29, 1891, the evening of the day following that for which his examination was set down before Judge O'Brien.

Since that hurried departure, Mr. Ammidown has not been visible in these parts, though his nephew testified on the examination that he had seen him in Hoboken six months ago, and that he was now somewhere in the West. It is said that he has joined Mr. Plummer and other embarrassed business men on the Pacific Coast, but his exact whereabouts is unknown. Whether the two are building up a new American Protective Tariff League at that distant point we are not able to say, for our facilities for collecting information from them have always been very poor. When the two were circulating their forged British press quotations in the campaign of 1888, we endeavored to get from them some explanation of their conduct, but had our labor for our pains.

There was an associate of Ammidown and Plummer whose performances were very similar to theirs, and who was a leading figure at the banquet from which Ammidown fled. We refer to Robert P. Porter, the compiler of the most worthless census this country has ever had the misfortune to be called upon to pay for. Porter made a "good thing" for himself by working a brand of American champagne—called "this great Republican wine"—upon the banqueters (we quote from his own account of the matter), arranging it so that there was no escape for the victims, since only American wines were furnished. Subsequently Porter travelled over the country calling for this brand of wine in every hotel at which he stopped, and raising a "row" because it was not to be had. He was subsequently sued by the proprietors of the brand because of his failure to keep certain financial obligations. Where is Porter now? Is he still in charge of the census? If he is, his retention is a public scandal which ought to have been put an end to the moment President Cleveland came into office.

Finally, there is Charles F. Peck, former Labor Commissioner of the State of New York. Peck was never a great statistician, but he did some useful work in collecting information about strikes and the composition and policies of labor unions. Unhappily the tariff or its managers got

hold of him, and induced him to put forth a lot of statistics about wages and the tariff which he could not sustain, and in order to protect which from exposure he was compelled to commit what the Court of Appeals says was a "felony." Peck is now on the way to Europe, and his bondsmen are preparing to forfeit his bail. It is said that he is going abroad for a syndicate of American newspapers—Republican, of course—to collect information concerning the condition of foreign laborers as compared with that of American laborers. We suspect that the Court of Appeals decision will so far impair the value of Peck's information that the syndicate will throw up the contract. The true place for Peck is on the Pacific Coast with Ammidown and Plummer, where the motto of politics and business is: "All records east of Omaha are barred."

THE OTHER SIDE OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

No part of the programme of the Bellamyites has been urged with greater vigor than the municipal ownership of gas works and electric-lighting plants, and no part of it has won more assent or tolerance from those who are not yet willing to go the whole Collectivist figure. Especial prominence was given the matter in Massachusetts a year ago, when an effort was made to pass a bill empowering cities and towns to go into the business in a wholesale way, and it seemed at one time as if the bill might have become law had not the Supreme Court given an opinion that it would be unconstitutional. At that time a great mass of statistics was presented by the advocates of the movement, designed to show the advantage of municipal ownership of public-lighting plants, and this was afterwards incorporated, with much more of the sort, in an article in the *Review of Reviews*, likewise arguing in the same direction.

A pamphlet has just been published by Mr. M. J. Francisco of Rutland, Vt., in which these statistics are subjected to a thorough sifting, and in which returns are presented from all the towns and municipalities in the United States that have gone into the business of supplying gas or electric lighting. The result is to discredit seriously the facts and figures put forward by the Nationalists, and to reinforce, from actual experience, the conviction, which is fortunately widespread, that the conditions of town and city government in this country are not such as to invite this extension of public functions. Mr. Francisco holds no brief for any theory of society or of government, but simply submits the whole question, in a cold-blooded way, to the test of bookkeeping and dollars and cents. He makes it clear, to begin with, that the reports of cost and efficiency and profit made by municipal officers are so loose and conflicting that it is dangerous to put any trust in them. As he well says: "Officials

see no necessity of inaugurating strict business methods, when a plausible statement that there is a reduction satisfies the public." Indeed, the frank superintendent of a city-lighting plant at Little Rock said to an inquirer: "You ought not to expect unhampered data from one who is now dependent on the job he holds." One table given by Mr. Francisco is conclusive on this point. Committees from Mobile, Scranton, Milwaukee, and Steubenville were investigating the question of electric lighting by municipal control, and made separate applications to the officials of Little Rock, Chicago, Ypsilanti, and Aurora, to find out what they were actually paying. The replies were so discrepant as to show that they were mostly guesswork. To one committee Little Rock reported that the annual cost per light was \$17, to another \$81. From Chicago one report set forth the cost as \$34.75; another, \$83. So with the other cities, and it is no wonder that the committees of inquiry recommended that contracts be made with private companies.

Another way in which the pamphlet shows that the figures have been garbled to prove the advantage of municipal control is by taking prices charged by private concerns when electric lighting was in its infancy, and setting them over against the lowered cost under city management. Thus, one favorite comparison has been between the rates of a company paying \$60 a thousand for its carbons and the cost to a city plant when the price has fallen to \$10 a thousand. Moreover, in municipal bookkeeping no account is taken of interest on the investment, or of repairs and renewals, or of damages paid out on account of accidents, or of taxes which would have been paid to the municipality by a private corporation doing the business. The report of the Mayor of Philadelphia on the profits of the municipal gas works is a case in point. According to his figures, there was a profit of \$807,205 on the gas sold to private consumers, and to this should be added, he thinks, \$820,499 more on account of the gas used by the city, at the rate of \$1.50 a thousand. This makes out the handsome profit of \$1,627,704. But the same report shows that the cost of manufacturing the gas is only eighty-nine cents a thousand, though the Mayor charges the city \$1.50, and this at once knocks off \$486,650 from his alleged profits. Then the plant is valued at \$20,000,000, and an allowance of 6 per cent. interest on this would strike off \$1,200,000 more. Add in taxes lost, and the showing would be one of actual loss instead of the magnificent gain claimed.

In this business-like way Mr. Francisco takes up case after case, and his brochure as a whole is one which Mr. Bellamy cannot afford to lose any time in studying and refuting, if he is able to refute it. One of the most deadly tables is that in which the cost of public lighting under municipal ownership in twenty-nine towns

in different States is compared with the cost in twenty-nine other adjacent towns, where the private-contract system is in force, with the result of showing that in nearly every case the cost is lower under the latter conditions, and also that "the candle power for one cent furnished by the private company is more than that produced by the municipal plant." Not the least telling part of the whole pamphlet is the exposure of the way the public-lighting service becomes only a "new political machine," always tending to parallel the experience of Philadelphia, where, as the Committee of One Hundred ascertained, the "gas trustees" made off with \$3,500,000 in the course of six years.

THE RUSSIAN TREATY.

THE extradition treaty with Russia has now been ratified and proclaimed, and is a part of the supreme law of the land. Its provisions are on their face framed in the interest of civilization. They are meant, like those of all other extradition treaties, to deprive the enemies of society of all shelter and refuge in civilized countries. But it is becoming more and more plain that a mistake has been made in concluding any such treaty with Russia. The objection to it will differ in degree only, and not in kind, from the objection to subjecting our own citizens to the criminal jurisdiction of the local authorities in Turkey, China, Morocco, and other barbarous countries. In all such countries we insist on judging criminal charges made against our own citizens, by our own judicial officers, and on inflicting the penalty through them under our own laws. We do not permit the intervention of the local courts under any circumstances, and to this anomaly all the countries above named are compelled to submit.

Now, Russia is undoubtedly a more civilized Power than any of them, and we cannot and do not ask of her submission to the somewhat humiliating arrangement known as "extritoriality." We cannot deny her the right to judge all offences committed on her own soil according to her own criminal procedure. In truth she has a recognized undisputed diplomatic place among the great civilized Powers. But her criminal procedure falls far below that of any of the other Powers whom we treat as our equals in the field of jurisprudence. It is not, from the point of view of Americans, Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans, Italians, Spaniards, or Austrians, in the great essential superior to that of Turkey, China, or Morocco. That is, the administration of justice in Russia is, as far as externals go, more orderly, swifter and surer than in Oriental countries, but it wants that feature of the supremacy of law over every other power in the State which is the great distinction between the justice of barbarians and the justice of civilized men. No judicial decision in

Russia is final. No acquittal by judge and jury secures a man his liberty. No accusation is necessarily public. Not only may the verdict of a jury be disregarded by the Executive if the case is held to have a political aspect, but the Executive is the sole judge of the existence of the political aspect. And of what value would acquittal by any court be, in the presence of the fact that transportation to Siberia or to the mines, without indictment or trial, on mere "administrative order," as necessary for the safety of the State, is always possible, and that every man, woman, and child in the empire is exposed to it?

For these reasons it seems to us that although we cannot claim extritoriality from Russia for our own citizens resident in Russia, we ought, for the very reasons which cause us to claim it in other countries, to refuse to surrender any one to Russian justice without exacting some guarantee that the defendant at the trial shall enjoy the privileges and facilities which he would have in countries governed by the Civil Law—say in Germany; and that if acquitted he shall have the right to leave the country without liability to arrest and detention on any other charge. The questions we have in mind are likely to arise only under Article III, which provides for the delivery of murderers, or accessories to murder, as it may be made to cover political conspirators who have attempted the assassination of the Czar or some of his officers—a not improbable contingency, as in despotic countries assassination is the usual and only effective mode of expressing discontent. Of course, such persons ought not to be protected against the proper punishment of their crimes by any use or abuse of the term "political." But there is no crime so heinous as to deprive the criminal of the right to a fair trial. This is probably the only fundamental natural right of every human being as a human being. We cannot conceive of the Almighty himself refusing it. It is because neither political nor any other offenders are sure of it in Russia, that we are bound to be careful about putting any human being, on any charge, into the hands of the Russian courts and police.

There is in the treaty no reciprocity in this matter. Russia does not propose to do for us what we undertake to do for her—give us back our criminals, with liberty to do what we please to them. We shall be bound to try every one she surrenders to us in broad daylight, to give him uproarious and obstreperous counsel, a jury that would probably take a month to select, and whose verdict would stand against the world in arms. The worst that could possibly happen to a surrendered fugitive with us would be a newspaper trial at the hands of the journalistic blatherskites who have been sitting during the past week on the Lizzie Borden case; but, compared to a Russian court, these jurists would seem Themis herself.

CURRENT ITALIAN FICTION.

ITALY, May, 1893.

ITALY still publishes translations of all the French novels that get talked about, from those of Zola to those of Ponson du Terrail; it is these that mainly serve as feuilletons to the newspapers, but, in book form, they are no longer the chief attractions of the bookseller's window, as they were in the evil days for Italian literature, still within the memory of living men. Leaving on one side the shops that address themselves especially to foreigners in the cities frequented by tourists, I think I am safe in saying that by far the greater number of novels exposed for sale are by Italian authors. What is more, there are many good works among them. Students of the Italian tongue may refuse to follow their instructors who would have them seek the conversational style in 'I Promessi Sposi' or 'Ettore Fieramosca.' Their bookseller may tell them that the 'Daniele Cortis' of Fogazzaro is almost a classic, or that 'La Marehesa d'Arce' of Memini and 'Mater Dolorosa' of Rovetta are well worth reading. De Amicis, Verga, and Farini are translated into other languages, and a slight acquaintance with current literature induces respect for the names of other novelists—Matilde Serao, for instance, or the charming gentleman who calls himself in print Enrico Castelnuovo. I would not seem wanting in admiration for those whom I do not name, so hasten to add that there are other novelists the peers of those I have mentioned, and that every year adds to their number.

An article in the *Nuova Antologia* not long ago called attention to three novels by young men, one of them, at least, the first essay of the kind by its author. The reviewer was perhaps too much concerned in showing up the materiality or sensuality of the modern representations of life—though it may be admitted that he said very neatly much that was just as to the excesses of the naturalistic school—and his ideal, that could be satisfied with nothing short of such masterworks as 'Adolphe,' 'Obermann,' or 'Volupté,' was something of a Procrustes bed by which to measure current literature. Still, the result of his article was that I read the three books criticised, and found my account in so doing.

Gabriele d'Annunzio is not yet thirty years old, but he has published already more than a dozen volumes of poetry and of prose, and is well known as one of the most highly gifted of the younger writers. Indeed, I doubt if, as an artist in language, as a manipulator of words and sentences, he has any superior in Italy. The chastened elegance of his verse, the polish and flow of his prose, are truly extraordinary. Leaving the former out of consideration for the present, it may be said that his novels contain pages which for picturesqueness and for musical expression could scarcely be excelled. There is, it is true, a good deal of that *préciosité* which renders the prose of the brothers de Goncourt so exasperating at times, but the harmony and grace of the periods, far above anything of the sort to be found in the authors of 'Renée Mauperin,' tempts you to forget this fault. Nowhere have the qualities of the young writer been more conspicuous than in the novel now before me; on this occasion, however, they have been lavished upon a disagreeable subject.

Charm of manner—to this, no doubt, is owing much of the favor that 'L'Innocente' has found among Italian readers. This, united with a remarkable acuteness and truthfulness of observation of the phenomena of human na-

ture and an exquisite feeling for landscape, with power of reproducing it, are, indeed, very attractive. One does not like to think, however, that any sane-minded person can find the story and the principal actor therein other than revolting—simply revolting. I would not make too much of an occasional Zola-like indiscretion in the way of saying out what is ordinarily passed over in silence, nor yet would I complain of the author's pessimism or the materialism (animalism?) of his view—a novel may please in spite of these; but it is unpardonable that we should be asked to take interest in a creature so abject as the hero.

Tullio Hermil, husband of a beautiful woman, is a refined voluptuary who fully lives up to his maxim that “the dream of every intellectual man is to be continually unfaithful to an ever-faithful wife.” He neglects and betrays his wife with cynical brutality, then returns to a mad passion for her, stimulated by jealousy and a suspicion that in her loneliness she has listened to the consolations and flattery of another. Indeed, she has forgotten herself for a moment, and the infant, consequence of her fault, becomes, not unnaturally, the object of Tullio's detestation. The renewed love and the new hatred grow together, until at last, in cold blood, he kills the child in a manner that renders detection impossible. This is the story that he tells of himself, adorned with every charm of language, grace of style, picturesqueness of description that he can invent for its setting. Were it not for this beauty of execution and the undeniable power of its author, few, I think, would fail to find the book loathsome. It is like many of the hideous martyrdoms in the galleries of Europe that hold you simply by force of drawing, color, and composition. Clever as they are, they rarely attract you to look at them more than once.

Neither of the other books before me is so well written as ‘L'Innocente,’ neither so finished and consistent as a work of art; but they furnish, both of them, more agreeable reading. The first is ‘L'Illusione,’ by Federico De Roberto. This author is also a young man who has written other novels, but who is not yet as famous as Gabriele d'Annunzio. Indeed, although a Sicilian, I found at Palermo people of cultivation, novel-readers, too, who had never heard the name of De Roberto. Nevertheless, in despite of less skill in construction and of too great length, it seems to me that ‘L'Illusione’ better repays reading than does ‘L'Innocente.’ If the style be less musical, it is also less *alambique*; if the book be long, it does not waste your time and patience in interminable analyses of diseased sensation. The narration is sober and straightforward. In this respect the critic of the *Nuova Antologia*—who, by the way, does scant justice to his author—compares De Roberto to Capuana. My experience does not enable me to say if Capuana has ever done anything so good as ‘L'Illusione’—I know that he has done much worse; but I should rather say that in the qualities just named De Roberto recalls no less a master than Flaubert, and that at his best, in ‘Madame Bovary.’ There is no question of imitation; in one of his earliest books, ‘La Sorte,’ there is a strong appearance of imitation of Verga, pardonable in consideration of a youthful admiration for a brother Sicilian; but the writer has since learned to stand alone, and the present resemblance to Flaubert comes merely from the unadorned, passionless, but masterful way that both have of treating similar subjects. Of course this similarity of subjects helps to suggest resemblance.

Teresa Daffredi is a sort of Madame Bovary,

immensely superior to the other in rank, knowledge, and intelligence, as well as in the number of her transgressions. Instead of a Norman village, she had Palermo, Rome, all Italy and the best society for her theatre. In such a world, and with a husband not only unfaithful, but brutally so, her fall is almost excusable. De Roberto has a sympathy, an affection, for his Teresa such as Flaubert never felt for his Emma Bovary. In spite of all that united to drag her down, you are rather surprised at her fall and quite pained. Indeed, the author helps you to feel a tender compassion for her in each successive failure. Teresa remains natural, human, and lovable, in the best sense, to the end. Till then she had preserved some rags of her innocence and had renewed her illusion of real love in each downward step; it was only after her eyes had been opened to the fact that she had become corrupted and a corrupter that she realized that the only true love she had ever awakened was that of a faithful old servant.

The book is a sad one, but it is not unwholesome, as is, I cannot help thinking, ‘L'Innocente’; nor, despite the inevitable sympathy for the frail heroine, is it immoral. On the contrary, like all uncompromising truth-telling, it is moral, and none the less so for being, from beginning to end, interesting. Even the account of the childhood and youth of Teresa, which, from the point of view of composition, might have been considerably abridged, is so charming that few, I fancy, would willingly miss it. The descriptions of Milazzo might well tempt some tourist to discover this almost unvisited city of the Sicilian coast. The parts relative to Palermo have an air of reality that gives them something of the zest of Daudet's indiscretions. If you know Palermo a little, you feel as if you might easily put your finger on the originals of some of the portraits.

The third book is also the work of a young man, Carlo Placci—his first novel. It is refreshing to be able to say at the outset that we are no longer concerned with the seventh commandment. A change to the eighth seems among Italian fictions of to-day almost as much a novelty as it would among the French, and we are correspondingly grateful. Of course failures in honesty are not in the long run so interesting as subjects for light literature as is the passion of love, whether innocent or culpable. Not everybody is tempted to steal, while few go through the world without some affair of the heart; and few even of those who have never quitted the paths of virtue—if they be really fair-minded and kindly—have not a soft spot somewhere within them for those who may have loved less happily or less wisely than themselves. For all that, the romance of crimes against property attracts a numerous public—witness Gaboriau; and in this case, where the nature of the theft and the character of the thief were alike so exceptional, the story may well engage the attention of the better class of readers.

The subject of ‘Un Furto’ is so unusual that I prefer not to forestall the pleasure of following the story. I have said that it was the first novel of its author, and it bears evident marks of his inexperience in composition. The opening chapters are too long, if you like, or there is too much about the Morelli school of criticism in art, or there is too great a display of erudition—in short, there are faults which the author may easily avoid in future. But where will he hereafter find the freshness of feeling that makes an appreciative reader not only pardon the faults, but even love them? In fact, there are faults that are more inte-

resting than the excellences of less clever writers—and this writer is undeniably clever. His erudition is real—that is, he understands and feels the things he talks about; he has not merely read of them; and his genuineness carries the reader with him into quattrocento art, or Morelli tests, or the restoration of pictures. Moreover, he writes of Florentine society, of the great Italian families, and of the cosmopolitan world of English, Germans, Russians, Americans, whether in the salons of the palaces or in the drawing-rooms of the *pensions*, as a man of the world to whom no opportunity has been lacking. The figures that appear in the pages of Ouida or Mr. Howells are as lively in those of Carlo Placci, while those that foreign writers have not dared to portray are there also, painted by one of themselves. The author is fair-minded in a rare degree: he writes of Italians with the knowledge of an Italian and with the disinterestedness of an American; he is impartial to those of his own class in society who are furthest from sharing in his own personal habits and sympathies. He is so scrupulous in his desire for truth, so fearful lest his own personality may bias his view, that it is to himself, to his own character and gifts, that he does most scanty justice.

It would be strange if so fair a judge should escape the ordinary lot of the unpartisan truth-teller. The Florentines are no more likely to be pleased with an unflattered likeness, that is also sometimes unflattering, than are their brethren elsewhere. One is accordingly not surprised to hear that they do not much admire ‘Un Furto,’ nor that some of them, in fact, speak of it deprecatingly. The stranger, however, especially the American, may well be excused from sharing the Florentine opinion. The heroine, Daisy Roberts, is an American, and an exceedingly charming one; delineated, too, with a truthfulness, a precision, and a delicacy worthy of all praise. The book may indeed be recommended to foreigners visiting Florence as one of the best existing introductions to the various component parts of its society. The Anglo-Italian *pension*, the tourist curious of art, the German scientific connoisseur, with his family and his home, are drawn with a masterly hand; even where there is a touch of caricature, the scrupulousness of our artist saves the accuracy of the portrait. Some of the descriptions are exquisite—for instance, that of the Via Tornabuoni on a spring morning; and nothing could be more delightful than the picture of the Certosa as a background to a scene of love-making and social manoeuvres.

First novels are apt to have a freshness of inspiration, a verisimilitude that comes from observations made *con amore*, a genuine autobiographical flavor, even when the story, as here, is purely an invention, that make one easily pardon defects of artifice, and prefer the earlier work to later, more sophisticated and less felt. It is no uncommon thing for a first novel to contain all that its author has to give us of knowledge of the world and of human nature. It is permitted, however, to hope that the pen that has written ‘Un Furto’ has yet other tales in store for us, and that so rare a talent for truth-telling will find other and as good material for our amusement. S. K.

THE UNIVERSITY QUESTION IN FRANCE.

PARIS, May 31, 1893.

I HAVE already had occasion to speak of the reforms introduced into primary and secondary education in France. Higher education is

at the present time undergoing a change in the like direction; and in particular an extensive reform is being meditated, not, indeed, in the curriculums of studies, but in the administrative organization presiding over its life. The motives actuating this change are sufficiently curious and merit some little attention. For a better understanding of the question let me first say a few words on the system of public education in France considered as a whole.

This system in its origin dates back, as is well known, to the First Empire. The Revolution did away with the various universities previously existing in France, completely upset the system of education in what was called the "three degrees," and tried to introduce in its place one characterized by complete unity and regularity. It was reserved for Napoleon to complete this work; and it was not till the 17th of March, 1808, that an imperial decree definitively made into a homogeneous whole what has since been called the "University of France." Into this creation the Emperor imported his essentially military spirit. Its constitution is a hierarchy no less than that of the army, and this hierarchy extends throughout the whole of France, imposing its authority and a unique organization upon all that touches education.

A "Grand Master" of the University—the Minister of Public Instruction—has the direction of the education of the country; inspects all educational establishments by means of a body of General School Examiners; confers degrees on the recommendation of the divers facultés, and makes most of the educational appointments. From a university point of view, France is divided into a certain number of academies, each having at its head a rector, assisted by inspectors, whose duty it is to inspect the educational establishments of the country, and by an academic council, which decides on matters of discipline. In each academic district exist a faculty of letters and a faculty of science which provide for higher education in philosophy, history, literature, mathematics, physics, chemistry, and natural history. Faculties of Law, Medicine, and Theology, established in the chief centres, and some other special schools, most of them situated in Paris, complete the course of higher education, which corresponds very nearly to that given by the universities in other countries.

Disregarding all that more particularly belongs to primary and secondary education as not needing to be treated of here, we have one point in the organization of the higher education interesting to be noticed. It is this: the various faculties have no separate existence apart from the whole body of which they are members. Intercalated in the general educational hierarchy, they are each governed, under the oversight of an academy rector, by a dean who is responsible for the proper holding of lectures and the general carrying on of the faculty. In fine, the faculties have no sort of cohesion one with another, and may even be situated in different towns, the Academy remaining as an administrative centre, which often corresponds to no reality in fact.

Some few years after the foundation of this system, a plan was mooted for modifying it. A decree of 1815 ordered the creation of seventeen local universities, intended to revive in a manner the ancient universities of the country. This decree, however, was never carried out; and though, at different epochs, ministers, like M. Guizot or M. Cousin, had meditated taking up the idea again, the organization of the University was maintained *in statu quo* in all its main features. Yet in closely follow-

ing the history of the subject, one sees accentuated little by little a tendency to modify the existing state of things; and this tendency has been especially visible since the rise of the Third Republic.

While from political motives the Government has increasingly subjected primary education to its own authority by placing the academy inspectors under the control of the prefects, it has shown itself, on the other hand, more and more disposed to free in a certain measure the higher education of the country from the administrative tutelage to which it was reduced by the decree of 1808. There are still persons, it is true, who continue to cry up the Napoleonic system, which preaches the necessity of reducing the faculties to the rank of special schools charged with the training of adepts in each particular branch of learning; but in opposition to this class there is gradually forming a philosophic and liberal current of opinion, having as its representatives men like Jules Simon, Wallon, Jules Ferry, Fallières, Lavis, Taine. This current of opinion desires the abolition of the University of France, as the latter is at present constituted, and its replacement by local universities, and justifies its attack on the ground that the higher education of to-day, by reason of its hierarchic organization, has no adequate autonomy. It further asserts that the divers faculties, by the very fact of their separation, are not sufficiently comprehensive to enable them to satisfy the needs of our own times. To prove the justness of what they put forward, the partisans of this theory argue that the Academy of Paris, which is in a privileged position because of its faculties being all on the same spot, draws to itself the majority of students in France, because these latter find themselves there in contact with all branches of study. At the same time, and in a less degree, other minor circumstances prove that the same university feeling is awakening among us as already exists abroad. As an example may be quoted the foundation of the Students' Association, which, under the patronage of M. Lavis, is rapidly assuming the importance already enjoyed by similar institutions in other countries.

The tendency thus manifested in various ways appears to have at length produced its legitimate effect in the introduction of a bill into the Senate by M. Bourgeois towards the end of 1890. The bill was discussed in March, 1892. By its provisions it demolished the entire administrative edifice of the present system of higher education, and created new local universities. In other words, it grouped the various branches of higher education together everywhere that such grouping was possible—i. e., everywhere that faculties of letters, science, law, or medicine were already organized. Its aim was to establish a connecting link between them, and to bring them out of their isolation, at the same time leaving them a certain amount of liberty in the drawing up of programmes and the organization of lectures.

It is difficult to know what will be the ultimate fate of this project, the discussion of which had been scarcely begun before it was interrupted by parliamentary formalities. So far the bill has not been taken up again. Its importance, however, as regards the future of education throughout France is such that the scheme it proposes ought to be made known. Nor is this all. There is yet another point of view worthy of notice. We have often had to remark that the Republican party wished, at whatever cost, to remain faithful to the spirit

of the Revolution. Now it would seem that, at any rate in the matter of education, Republicans are desirous of breaking with tradition. True, there are advanced Republicans who, in order to justify their attitude, declare they wish to abolish the University because it is Napoleon's work and bears the stamp of its origin; but it is none the less certain that if the system of local universities be adopted, it will introduce a large scheme of decentralization, and bring back the predominance of provincial life and particularist spirit, whereas the Revolution made a point of destroying this state of things in order to weld France into one homogeneous whole.

S.

IN THE BALEARIC ISLES.—III.

PALMA, May, 1893.

ONE of the most naïve petitions ever offered to the Almighty was that made by Don Jaime I. of Aragon on his way to conquer the capital of Mallorca in 1229. He had been insulted by the haughty Moorish chief who then ruled over the island, and, in an enthusiastic gathering of Spanish nobles, it was decided to avenge the insult, possess themselves of the fruitful soil and overflowing wealth of the infidels, and at the same time add to the glory of God by making their conquest a Christian country. So the "Holy Crusaders" set forth, but, a violent storm being encountered, the King was urged to return. Thereupon he appealed to God in the following touching prayer: "Do, my Lord and Creator, so that a pious enterprise like this such as I have undertaken may not miscarry, for it is not I alone who would lose, but thou wouldest lose also, since I go on this voyage to win a triumph for the Faith and to abase those who do not believe in thee."

The fierce but brief Mediterranean outburst over, the Spanish landed, and the Moors, though making a long and determined resistance, were finally defeated and nearly exterminated. To perpetuate this Christian triumph, the King, soon after the conquest, began the pious work of building a cathedral; and a massive Gothic structure, of a rich amber tone, now occupies the commanding situation once held by a Moorish mosque. The impressiveness of the interior of the cathedral, which is divided by remarkably slender columns into three immense naves, broken only by the choir in the central nave, is deepened by the prevailing obscurity, which is scarcely lessened by a beautiful rose window at the end of the chancel. In this dim light the black-robed figures kneeling on the bare pavement, telling their beads, suggest penitential woe rather than the joy of worship; and as the first feeling of awe caused by this gloomy vastness wears away, we find little occasion to linger. At certain hours of the morning, however, slender shafts of light stream in through the narrow openings near the roof, revealing warm tones of color and delicate carvings undreamed of at other hours.

Of the once powerful Moors who occupied this island for five centuries, and who accomplished the difficult art of satisfying its ever-thirsty soil, and of developing and bringing to a great state of perfection its agricultural resources, whose skilful engineers surrounded Palma with a triple wall, and whose love of beauty expressed itself in graceful forms of architecture within the city, wars and revolutions have left few traces. But the royal palace opposite the cathedral is said to be of Moorish origin, and wears, in spite of its renovation, a look foreign to its surroundings; and in the architecture that followed the conquest

the Saracenic spirit seems to have been almost unconsciously preserved in various elegant details; but nothing original remains in its entirety—only a beautiful fragment here and there; the most noticeable and best authenticated being some remains of Arab baths, while an arch of their old wall spans a city street.

Going down the long flight of steps leading from the royal palace, we skirt the wall behind which stood the beautiful monastery of San Domingo. One of the stories connected with this convent tells that, at a time when Mallorca was perishing with drought, a celebrated preaching-friar, Vincent Ferrier, was sent for from Spain. Such was his eloquence that the vast church and convent garden overflowed with an eager multitude, so that walls were beaten down and scaffolding erected to accommodate the people. Moreover, the rain-clouds came flocking together, and, after his third sermon, fell in plentiful showers. This convent was the headquarters of the Inquisition in Mallorca, and, in the outburst of popular indignation against monastic institutions, was destroyed, and remained for many years a heap of picturesque ruins. In her 'Winter in Mallorca,' George Sand makes these ruins the scene of an imaginary conversation between an artist who is deplored the brutality that overthrew these beautiful altars, and a monk prematurely aged from ten years' confinement in the convent dungeons. To the latter the rough men who wrought such destruction appeared like angels from heaven. And when the artist regrets the loss of the sources of inspiration once found within those walls, the monk replies that the living faith that inspired the people to freedom is a prophecy of yet deeper sources from which the art of the future may draw.

In the royal days of Palma, gay tournaments were wont to be held along the shaded avenue that leads to the quay where stands the "Lonja," or Exchange, before which Charles V., on his entry into the city, stopped his horse in admiration, exclaiming that it rejoiced his heart, and that he was delighted to know that he had so bright a jewel in his crown. Built in the early part of the fifteenth century, the Lonja is a brilliant memorial of Mallorca's former commercial importance. Now it stands silent and deserted, looking out over the sea that once bore ships from Africa, Iberia, and the Indies to its doors. The beauty of the Lonja, which is rectangular in form, flanked by four octagonal towers, with an openwork balustrade running from tower to tower, consists in its noble simplicity and the refinement of its ornamentation. The interior is a vast hall, divided into three naves by six spirally fluted columns of exquisite beauty, which terminate without capitals in the vaulted roof, like a fronded palm. These columns rise without base from a pavement of black tiles, which helps to carry out the ample and harmonious impression of the whole interior. The material used in the construction of the Lonja is a native stone to which age gives a beautiful mellow tone. The great fortress, Castelnuovo, at Naples, was built from the same quarry, and Mallorca had the honor of supplying not only the material for that building, but the architect, Guillermo Sagrera, as well.

Such is the seductiveness of out-of-door life in this climate that we received the statement that of the thirty or more churches in Palma few were worthy of a visit, with secret pleasure. Santa Eulalia and San Magin are interesting as having been held inviolable places of refuge for criminals. The slender minarets of a Moorish mosque once rose where the Church

of San Miguel now stands. It was near this spot that the first breach in the city walls was made by the conquerors, and the blood on their swords was scarcely dry before the mosque was entered and consecrated (December 31, 1229) to the Christian faith. The Gothic cloisters of the Convent of San Francisco, now used as a prison, are original and picturesque, but the chief interest of the church itself lies in the fact of its being the last resting-place of the venerated Ramón Lull, "the glory of his country, the light of his century." His romantic history needed no legend to give it warmth and color, but legend loves to mete out poetic justice as well as to surround its saints with a supernatural halo, and it is told that his wild and reckless course, which went to the length of taking him into a church on horseback in mad pursuit of a woman of whom he was enamoured, received a violent check when, on urging a suit that had been repeatedly rejected, a final answer was given by dramatically disclosing a cancer-eaten breast. It is true that he retired to mountain solitudes for the study of chemistry, in the hope of finding a remedy for cancer, and that his ardent spirit bent its energies to science, philosophy, and religion, the last years of his life being spent in the constant effort of converting the infidels to Christianity through persuasion. He fell a martyr while preaching on the coast of Africa; and when some Genoese fishermen attempted to convey his body to Italy, they could get no farther than his native island, although a fair wind filled their sails.

As the spring months troop by, they bring a succession of fruits to the gay market-place, a scene of unfailing interest. The golden abundance of oranges and lemons is now on the wane, but the cherries, making their advent tied to a short stick crowned with a posy, now lie in rich heaps close beside the yellow apricots and deep-hued strawberries. We have experienced a new and agreeable sensation in eating the latter with orange juice as a substitute for cream, which last is an almost unheard-of luxury in Mallorca. The noisy and lively fish-market sparkles with the gold and rainbow-hued fish that only a few hours before were swimming in the cool depths of the Mediterranean. These brilliant colors and peculiar varieties of fish-life are novel to us, and we linger so long that the shrill-voiced Mallorquinas become importunate. Fine mackerel, crabs and lobsters of unusual size, and dainty mussels, with beautiful shells of shaded brown, are abundant. The leathery inhabitants of conch houses come creeping out and stand on their thresholds undismayed by the proximity of the horrid, yawning, octopus-like cuttle-fish, which is here considered a great delicacy served in its own inky juice.

In wandering to and fro we now and then come upon a pretty custom, like that of strewing the street in front of a house with fragrant myrtle on the occasion of some special festivity, which seems in harmony with the air of quaintness that pervades the city—an inheritance that does not seem to belong to the present inhabitants, shrewd, kindly, sober, industrious, but lacking, it would seem, in the poetic element.

S. G.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN PRESBYTERIANISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue it is suggested:

(1.) That the conservative element of the

Northern Presbyterian Church may now be joined by the Southern branch of the Church.

(2.) That the liberal element of the Northern branch may make some sort of shift for itself.

(3.) That the differences which split the Church into sectional fragments grew out of a refusal of the Northern Church to accept the Southern view of the Scriptural sanction of slavery.

In the Dr. Woodrow case, from the Theological Seminary at Columbia, S. C., the Southern General Assembly, in 1855-6, proceeded, so far as concerned the issue, to the same illiberal conclusion reached by their Northern brethren in the Briggs case. The issue in the Southern case grew out of Dr. Woodrow's views and teaching of evolution. A similar liberal minority earnestly fought for freedom of conscience and of speech in the Woodrow case. Unless memory is at fault, it will be found that the proportion of liberals to conservatives in the Woodrow case considerably exceeded that in the Briggs case, so that it will not be a case of a Northern conservative majority joining a Southern conservative church. In proportion to numbers, it is probable that the Southern liberals exceed those of the Northern Church.

That the Scriptural sanction view was held by some Southern ministers I know; for my old preceptor once took me to task for an essay touching slavery, as if I had denied the Atonement. I was a secessionist, served through the war as a Confederate, believed and still believe that slavery was a wise and beneficent institution in its day—the cradle, nursery, and school of all infant societies and aspiring raw races—but I believed its day over. But I never heard this earnest, pious Christian gentleman preach such doctrine. It touched a political, or a politico-social, issue; and Presbyterians generally earnestly avoided such subjects. The Southern churches kept scrupulously clear of political utterances. The actual division into Northern and Southern Assemblies came in 1861, with the war, and grew out of the feeling of the Southern churches aroused by the declaration of the General Assembly upon the public issues of the day. It will be found that the Southern Church kept clear, even during the war, of political utterances, although preachers sometimes breathed fire and sword from the pulpit. The breach between the two has never been healed, because of a refusal by the Northern Church to rescind certain war utterances regarded by the Southern branch as ex-cathedra and a reflection upon their Christian character as to matters lying beyond the pale of theology or church government.

INQUIRER.

NASHVILLE, TENN., June 12, 1893.

SOUTH AND NORTH DURING THE REVOLUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To students of American history the feeling that existed in Revolutionary times between the people of New England on the one hand and the people of the South on the other has always been an interesting subject of study. Among the archives of Harvard College I recently happened upon some papers which throw some light on the matter. In May, 1780, John Dawson, "a young gentleman of Virginia," who had been studying at William and Mary, wished to be admitted to Harvard. Thomas Russell and James Swan of Boston wrote a letter in his behalf to the Corporation, asking that his ignorance of Greek be not considered a bar to his admission, inasmuch as Greek was not

taught at Williamsburg. "His inducements for coming," they write, "were partly on account of climate, but mostly from the great reputation which Harvard maintains in that part of the continent." The Corporation at once instructed the President and professors to examine Dawson, and at the same time appointed a special committee, of which President Langdon was a member, to prepare a draft of a vote respecting the petition. At the next meeting of the Corporation, the vote was accepted as follows:

"Whereas we are strongly inclined to give every mark of our respect & affection to the very antient State of Virginia, which has been so conspicuous for its noble exertions in the glorious cause of American Liberty and Independence—And whereas John Dawson, late Student at Williamsburgh in that State, who comes well recommended to us, is desirous of finishing his academical studies in this University—

"Voted—That the Prayer of the Petition presented in his behalf be granted; and that on his complying with the Requisitions of the Laws respecting Admission, he be admitted a Member of the Sophomore Class: And inasmuch as he hath not prosecuted the Study of Greek at Williamsburgh, he be exempted from attending on the Instructions in the Greek Department. . . ."

Dawson was in the Virginia Convention of 1789, and a member of Congress 1797-1814.

Very respectfully,

WILLIAM GARROTT BROWNE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 10, 1893.

BRAIN-SURGERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to observe that a careful reading of Dr. Keen's article on Brain-Surgery hardly seems to justify the extreme optimism of your review? Nearly one-half of his essay in *Harper's* is given up to the subject of epilepsy and mental disorders. If Dr. Keen describes a single case of either which has been absolutely cured by surgical interference, I fail to discover it. Considering the fact that in England alone, during the past five years, 14,898 persons died from epilepsy; that from this one cause 3,000 victims die there every year; that in only four countries—France, Germany, Great Britain, and the United States—the death-roll from epilepsy cannot be less than 20,000 per annum, it would seem that Dr. Keen might have mentioned some cases of this terrible disorder absolutely cured by that brain-surgery he so graphically describes, if they existed. Instances of apparent amelioration where, after operation, "three fits occur daily," can hardly count as evidence of brilliant success.

The truth is, that, while we have learned many curious and interesting facts by the experiments of Ferrier and others upon the monkey's brain, and probably are learning even more by our experiments in brain-surgery upon idiots and epileptics, yet so far Dr. Keen cannot apparently refer to a single case of chronic epilepsy absolutely cured by surgical interference. The scientific justification of physiological vivisection is identical with the excellent reason given by the little girl for cutting open her doll—that she "wanted to find out what was inside it." "I do not believe," says Dr. Charles Richet, Professor of Physiology in Paris, "that a single experimenter says to himself when he gives curare to a rabbit or cuts the spinal cord of a dog: 'Here is an experiment which will relieve or cure disease.' No; he does not think of that. He says to himself: 'I shall clear up an obscure point; I will

seek out a new fact.' And this scientific curiosity which alone animates him is explained by the idea he has of science." Here is the only defence of physiological vivisection. In attempting to prove utility in cure of disease, Science steps to lower levels, and makes often but a sorry defence. M. D.

JUNE 14, 1893.

COLOR-SENSE IN WOMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It occurs to me that there is one respect in which the contemners of women have not lived up to their advantages. It is a well-known fact that color-blindness is a defect which is found in men to the extent of 3 per cent. of the male population, but which is exceedingly rare among women. Now it is evident that this failure on the part of women to exhibit the normal masculine deficiency in color-sense must indicate some deep-seated inferiority on their part, if only one could find out just what it is. Cannot the psychologists come to our assistance here? X.

BALTIMORE, JUNE 3, 1893.

CLASSICAL PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read the note in this week's *Nation* upon Mr. E. N. P. Moore's translation of the first book of Cicero's "De Oratore." All that is there said about the evil results of reading over and over again in our preparatory schools the same limited portions of the same four or five Greek and Latin writers accords so fully with my own feeling and experience that I cannot refrain from writing to express the heartiest approval of it. I must take exception, however, to the statement that "the pedagogues have only themselves to blame" for the evil, if it is meant to include the teachers of the preparatory schools under the semi-comic appellation. None appreciates the evil results of the practice referred to more fully than these same teachers of the preparatory schools. No others have such personal experience of the machine work, the weariness, and the deterioration of intellectual power to which the practice almost inevitably leads. Surely, were the remedy within the power of these, the greatest sufferers, it would have been applied long ago.

No doubt it is easier to find fault and try to shift responsibility than to change things for the better. It may be assumed, however, that adequate preparation for college in the subjects of Greek and Latin includes: (1) the mastery of grammatical facts and principles; (2) the acquisition of a vocabulary, larger or smaller; (3) skill in the use and application of this knowledge. Now it would seem not impossible for the colleges to define more exactly the minimum amount of grammar and the minimum vocabulary which they will accept, and to make the test of this knowledge a more important part of their entrance examinations than they do at present. The test for the third head would be the ability to read at sight any passage, not rendered obscure by its subject matter, the use of uncommon constructions or unusual or technical words, or by textual difficulties, taken from Caesar, Cicero, Virgil, Xenophon, and other writers of whom these may be considered representative. Could the colleges be led to drop from the lists of their entrance requirements the traditional "first four

books of Caesar's Gallic War, first six books of Virgil's "Aeneid," and all the rest of it, with a corresponding change in their entrance examinations, they would confer a priceless boon upon many a suffering teacher and many a misused schoolboy. And the mercy thus shown to others would not fail of being twice blessed inasmuch as the givers could confidently expect to receive students better fitted for their college work than they do at present, and able to look upon the writings of the classical authors as among the masterpieces of the world's thought and literature rather than mere task-books to be studied only for the sake of passing an examination.—Yours very truly,

CHAS. C. SHERMAN.

SYRACUSE, N. Y., June 10, 1893.

"ALL BY MYSELF."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will the editor or some reader of the *Nation* set me right as to the use of the phrase "all by myself"?

Coming to North Carolina lately, I found it in common use among the mountaineers; and it sounded novel and improper. Very soon, to my chagrin, a friend quoted the phrase from a letter of my own. Then I saw it in the editorial columns of *Forest and Stream* and the *Boston Herald*, and now I find the *Nation* quoting Dr. William Everett as follows: "I am not conceited enough to think that I can change things *all by myself*," etc.

Is the phrase good English, or a permissible colloquialism, or is it entirely bad?

A. B. C.

HIGHLANDS, N. C., June 10, 1893.

Notes.

WE gather from the London *Bookman* that Simpkin, Marshall & Co. will issue in the fall "Thirteen Years' Pioneering and Sport in Mashonaland," by F. C. Selous; and that the "Familiar Letters of Walter Scott," in preparation by David Douglas, Edinburgh, will be ready either in the autumn or in the spring of next year.

Harper & Bros. are about to publish "A House-Hunter in Europe," by William Henry Bishop.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have nearly ready No. IV. in the series of Cornell Studies in Classical Philology, "The Development of the Earlier Athenian Constitution," by George W. Botsford. No. V., in preparation, is to be entitled "On the Ritual of the Asklepios Cult," by Dr. Alice Walton. The same publishers announce a new series of Latin Classics for Schools, under the editorial supervision of W. C. Collar of the Roxbury Latin School and John Tetlow of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston.

Lee & Shepard will issue "The Builders of American Literature," by F. H. Underwood, and "Not Quite Angels," a novel, by Nathan Haskell Dole.

Mr. Samuel H. Scudder's "Brief Guide to the Commoner Butterflies" is soon to be published by Henry Holt & Co., who will also bring out "The Life of a Butterfly," by the same author.

F. Anstey's peculiar humor shines in "Mr. Punch's Pocket Ibsen" (Macmillan), and must prove irresistible even to the most ardent admirers of the great dramatist. After the fashion of the "condensed novel," he absurdly epitomizes and "slightly rearranges" "Rosmersholm," "A Doll House," "Hedda Gabler," and "The Wild Duck." The Ibsen *théâtre* is

summed up in an original "Pill-Doctor Herald," less amusing than the travesties. Mr. Partridge's illustrations are adequate, though none surpasses the frontispiece, in which "the master's" portrait is cleverly forced into a likeness of Mr. Punch.

In Mr. Joel Benton's place we should have turned the contents of his 'Greeley on Lincoln' (Baker & Taylor Co.) end for end. That is, we should have begun with personal reminiscences, followed these with the letters to Charles A. Dana and to a lady friend, and ended with the "Estimate of Abraham Lincoln." This remarkable address, which we commended at the time of its appearance in the *Century Magazine*, needs, for appreciation of its full weight, a just comprehension of Mr. Greeley's idiosyncrasies. Mr. Benton's reminiscences and the two series of private letters contribute not a little to such a comprehension. Mr. Dana was managing editor of the *Tribune* when Mr. Greeley went to Washington to further and report the election of Banks to the Speakership of the House in the winter of 1855-56. The friction that arose between two independent judgments so far apart, between a positive and a compromising temperament, or that grew out of faulty mail and telegraphic service, or bad handwriting, or simple misunderstanding, gave frequent opportunities for the display of Mr. Greeley's testiness as well as of his political genius. There are many epigrammatic sayings, with much grim humor, and occasional recording of facts that do not get into histories. "Contrary to what you would suppose," he writes on April 7, 1856, "Clayton was perfectly sober and Bell atrociously drunk at the time of their row in the Senate last week. Bell was a little worse when he undertook to apologize, if possible, than when he gave the insult." At Lawrence, May 20, 1859: "Rain—mud most profound—flooded rivers and streams—glorious soil—worthless politicians—lazy people—such is Kansas in a nutshell." The letters to a young lady of the Universalist denomination cover the years 1870-72, and are not of much account even when the Presidential campaign and election are involved. The gem of the volume is the estimate of Lincoln; but Mr. Benton has strangely omitted the particulars concerning its composition and delivery which he gave in the *Century*.

Jordan Brothers of Philadelphia have issued 'The Columbus Memorial,' which contains the Spanish text of Columbus's first letter (with a second-hand reduced facsimile); an English translation of the same; a facsimile of the Latin edition of the same letter (the thirty-three-lines-to-a-page issue, dimmed likewise by a second-hand reproduction); and a facsimile, with a translation, of Vespucci's four voyages in the Italian text (equally blurred and for the same reason), the whole professing to be "edited by George Young," and rededicated "to the President and People of the United States." The publication is an impudent theft in text, comment, and facsimile from publications of Mr. Quaritch, without acknowledgment. It is another of the literary sins of this Columbian era.

Miss Harriet Monroe's Columbian Ode has been printed in a "souvenir edition," with much elegance of type and ornament, at the De Vinne Press (Chicago: W. Irving Way & Co.).

The student of Dante should avoid encumbering his library with Dr. Prompt's 'Les Œuvres Latines Apocryphes du Dante' (Venice, 1893), a work which pretends to expose the unauthenticity of the *De Monarchia*, the letter to Can Grande, the Eclogues and the

Quæstio de aqua et terra. The author's whole argument in each case, however, is an illogical conglomerate of misapprehensions and fancies.

Dr. Artur Farinelli's 'Spanien und die spanische Litteratur im Lichte der deutschen Kritik und Poesie' (Parts I., II.; Berlin: A. Haack) is the ambitious attempt of a young Italian to trace from the earliest centuries the varied influence of Spain and Spanish literature on that of Germany. It is in no sense a work of genius. The author is still heavily laden with curious bibliographical learning, and flounders in a quagmire of needless citations. His style, too, is lame, and he lacks the firm and bold hand with which one less deeply read might have sketched the broad contrasts in race, in religion, and in artistic and literary ideals that rendered difficult all interchange of ideas between the two countries. But, in spite of these defects, the reader who is interested in the comparative history of literature will welcome this little precursory essay in a field where everything still remains to be achieved. Spain's influence on Germany was not unlike her influence on England, and to describe with adequate fulness and clearness the diverse heritage of realism and romance in either case would be to fill a brilliant page in literary history.

That fantastic and legendary figure of the Middle Ages Prester John, the Christian king in the far East, is the subject of a critical article by Gustavo Uzielli in the *Bollettino della sezione fiorentina della Società Africana d'Italia* for April. The author considers the origin of the legend and the reasons for its growth, and discusses the gradual shifting of the regions in which the fabulous Christian kingdom was in different centuries located.

The first volume of Salmons' 'Konversations-Lexikon für Norden' has recently been completed. It reaches almost to the end of the letter A, and includes very full accounts of Africa, America, and *Arbeide* (Labor), besides shorter articles relating to Scandinavia. The first part of the second volume is already out, and the work will be pushed as rapidly as is consistent with thoroughness.

The third part of the "Allgemeine Länderkunde," published at Leipzig by the Bibliographisches Institut (New York: Westermann), deals with America. The first instalment out of thirteen is before us. It is freely illustrated with woodcuts, colored plates, facsimiles, and maps; and, beginning with a survey of the discoveries and of the scientific exploration after 1800, the editors pass to a consideration of the continent from the physical point of view. The same New York house sends ^{as} Part x. of Vogel's minutely detailed Map of the German Empire, consisting of sheets 15 (Frankfurt am Oder) and 24 (Regensburg); together with Part ii. of Langhans's German Colonial Atlas. Sheet No. 4 is a curious exhibition in colors of the spread of Germans over "das deutsche Land" and across the borders, making headway against Poles, Bohemians, Hungarians, Italians, French, and Danes. The largest of the side-maps shows the activity of the Colonizing Committee (*Ansiedlungs-Kommission*) for the provinces of West Prussia and Posen. Sheet No. 24 represents a portion of the sphere of influence (*Schutzgebiet*) of the New Guinea Company.

Our Washington Office of Naval Intelligence has developed, out of an original report on the Comparative Merits of Anthracite and Bituminous Coal, a very useful work on 'Coaling, Docking and Repairing Facilities of the Ports of the World,' with analysis of different kinds

of coal. The arrangement is not alphabetical but geographical, coastwise, beginning with the ports on the Great Lakes. In a fourth edition a port index might seem worth the while.

The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey puts out an elaborate descriptive catalogue of publications relating to itself from 1807 to 1890, and to United States standard weights and measures from 1790 to 1890, compiled by Edward Goodfellow, C. H. Sinclair, and J. B. Baylor, Assistants, being Appendix No. II to the Report for 1891.

The second annual report of the Trustees of Public Reservations in Massachusetts is a document deserving of very wide distribution. It reveals the mechanism for procuring the setting apart for public use and enjoyment of "beautiful and historical places," in small areas or in large, by private gift (the property and care being vested in these Trustees), and for stimulating civic interest in establishing or multiplying parks and pleasure grounds. For example, the Trustees last year received from a lady, in memory of her daughter, "twenty acres of fine woodland in the township of Stoneham," and then collected in small sums about \$2,000 as a fund for the maintenance of this "Virginia Wood." It also collected statistics of the public open spaces of Massachusetts, and now sets them forth in detail, town by town, and sums them up in a table of proportion of population to open space; e. g., for the cities alone, Lynn, 27.1 inhabitants per acre; Boston (seventh on the list), 307.4 inhabitants. The report closes with an investigation of the state of the province lands on Cape Cod, and illustrates pictorially the ruinous effect on vegetation of man's neglect and devastation.

"Should United States Senators be Elected by the People?" is the subject of a paper and discussion to be found in No. 1 of the Publications of the Michigan Political Science Association. The affirmative was held by T. C. Barkworth, M. C., but the not too profound discussion, in which Profs. Hinman and H. C. Adams among others took part, was generally opposed to the "reform." The futility of supposing that the people would really elect (*i. e.*, nominate) was urged by more than one speaker; and of course the difficulty of procuring a constitutional amendment was not overlooked.

M. Ary Renan, whose names indicate an illustrious descent both in art and in letters, has lately come into full view as an art critic. He has within the last month or so published in the *Temps* some very intelligent appreciations of the paintings in the two French Salons of the present year, and of the sculpture at the Champs-Elysées. He is just now, in London, at the invitation of the *Full Mall Gazette*, in which are to appear some critical articles from his pen upon the Royal Academy's exhibition.

The width of the circle of friends in England of the late Bishop Brooks was strikingly attested in the meeting held in the Jerusalem Chamber of Westminster Abbey on June 16, "to consider the advisability of an English contribution to the American memorial to the late Right Reverend Phillips Brooks." The London Committee of those who wished to be announced as in sympathy with the movement consisted, among others, of the Lords Bishops of Durham, Winchester, Peterborough, Rochester, and Ripon; the Deans of Winchester and Westminster; the Masters of Balliol College, Oxford, and Trinity College, Cambridge, and the Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford; Professors Sanday and Cheyne of Oxford, and Ryle and Kirkpatrick of Cambridge. The Dean of Westminster presided, and besides the

addresses by the prelates and the dons, remarks were made by Lord Playfair and by James Bryce, M.P.

Two incidents of the sixteenth commencement of Johns Hopkins University on June 13 mark an era in the history not alone of that institution, but of American educational development. Dr. William H. Welch, the distinguished pathologist, Dean of the Hopkins Medical School to open in October, after briefly rehearsing the anomalous conditions of medical education in the United States, stated definitely that only those men and women who have received, in addition to special training in chemistry and biology, the liberal education represented by the bachelor's degree from a first-rate college will be admitted to this young medical school; he also announced that only the first year's course of the required four-years' curriculum had been as yet mapped out. The appointed standard, much in advance of any now in force at an American school of medicine, corresponds mainly to that required for admission to leading European schools, and represents a wise and courageous stand for professional education of the very highest grade. Although Johns Hopkins thus puts its M.D. degree beyond the reach of all except a comparatively limited number of picked men and women, its advanced medical instruction still remains within the reach of many others: post graduate courses and lectures, distinct from the prescribed curriculum of the Medical School, and open as hitherto to any graduated physician, are still offered for 1893-94. The second incident was the conferring of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy on Miss Florence Bascom of Massachusetts (A.B. University of Wisconsin). Miss Bascom has accepted a post in a coeducational college in Columbus, Ohio.

—"Women and Physical Force" is the cheerful theme of an article, signed "C. E. M.," in a recent issue of the *Modern Review*. All along in the world's history, we learn, quasi-demons have been indulged with mates unspeakably more tractable and every way better than they deserved. But the day of such misalliances should end; and the destinies have, with poetic justice, provided for their melioration. Men, it is liberally conceded, are capable of being improved; and for attempts at their improvement they will do well to prepare themselves. But "C. E. M." shall tell us, in her own words, of the wrongs of her sex, of its preëminence, and of the scorn, hardly pitying, with which she regards the wretches whom she proposes to Mantaliniize into becoming submissiveness. "Woman," she says, "has ever been degraded and oppressed by the tyrant Man. Immeasurably superior to him, she has" suffered this, that, and the other. "By her power of self-control, Woman is so vastly the superior of man," with his "too emotional nature," and so on and so on. Moreover, "Woman is ruled by the heart, while Man is guided by his senses; and thus we find ourselves in the illogical and ridiculous position of the best and largest half of humanity being ruled by the worst half." Of reason, in either men or women, not a word is said; the consideration of it being, by what looks like tacit confession, beyond the fair essayist's sphere. In proof that women "can fight, and will fight, if need be," she appeals to "the King of Dahomey's female body-guard." The five pages from which our extracts have been taken open with the question: "Are women justified in an appeal to physical force, in order to obtain freedom for their sex?" Their conclusion is sufficiently spirited: "Should wo-

men be driven to revenge themselves, as Charlotte Corday and other women have done, on a man-constituted society, which treats them with a disregard that it dare not show to any body of citizens capable of bearing arms, then on the heads of their oppressors—the Gladstones, the Harcourts, and the Labouchères—will be the consequences." Let us hope, however, that latter-day heroines, be they many or few, will leave socio-political phlebotomy to regular practitioners.

—Prof. F. A. Aulard's latest appearance in print is in an article on the Childhood and Youth of Danton, in the *Révue Encyclopédique* of May 15. This is a sort of summing up of the facts of Danton's early life, gathered out of the vast quantity of documents which research has amassed in the course of many years. Its effect is to destroy both of the Danton myths—the hostile one and the heroic. The great Revolutionist is shown to be no angel, either of the dark or of the bright sort, but a man, like others. The article is so compact as to read in parts almost like a *résumé*, and any further compression of it is quite impossible. The only way to give a notion of it is to detach a little fragment which happens to be of literary interest. M. Aulard is correcting the two opposing myths, one of which represents Danton as a profound scholar, the other as an ignoramus.

"He was not," he says, "a lettered pedant, like Robespierre, a lover of form, like Vergniaud. But he was not, on the other hand, an ignorant man. He had gained for himself, after a somewhat haphazard fashion, an education which was varied, personal, above all modern and French. We have seen that he came out of the College of Troyes as free from scholasticism as the fabled pupil of Rabelais. He is the only man of the Revolution whose mind was not dominated by Greco-Latin antiquity."

Evidence in support of this last clever and pregnant remark M. Aulard finds in the list of Danton's books which has been preserved. He had two Virgils—one in Italian by Caro; the other, Dryden's English version. Both the English and Italian tongues he knew and spoke, and possessed, in the original text, Shakspere, Pope, Richardson, Robertson, Johnson, Adam Smith, Tasso, Ariosto, and Dante. "Like all his contemporaries, he loved and quoted Corneille, but I remark that he read also Rabelais, and that taste was rare in the eighteenth century." He spoke Latin fluently, as appears from the circumstances attending his admission as *avocat aux conseils du roi*. The recipient of this charge was bound by custom to deliver an address in Latin to the company. Older members who were present heard some strange phrases in Danton's speech, such as "motus populorum," "ira gentium," "salus populorum supra lex," and, being very distrustful of such novelties, they asked for his manuscript. Danton replied that he had no manuscript, but professed entire willingness to repeat the harangue, if they would listen. M. Aulard's article is furnished with abundant and minute footnotes, containing many valuable references to the historical sources from which he draws.

—The excellent necrology of Andover Theological Seminary, prepared by the Rev. C. C. Carpenter, shows twenty-nine deaths during the last year among those connected with the institution as alumni or otherwise. Probably the Rev. Daniel Butler, known from his long connection with the Massachusetts Bible Society as "Bible Butler," and everywhere beloved for his genial disposition and quick but kindly wit, will be the most widely mourned;

but the scholarship of Dr. Bliss, the life-long missionary in Turkey, has established an enduring monument for him in his translations into the Armenian tongue. The Rev. Joseph T. Noyes, after a life of missionary toil in India, could point to forty-seven Christian congregations as the result of his labors, and the records of these lives in general give evidence of effective work for righteousness. The ages attained are sufficient to bring to naught those who scoff at the report in Genesis of the years attained by the patriarchs. The average age of these twenty-nine men at the time of their death was about seventy-three years and three months. One of them had passed ninety-nine, three were over ninety, six between eighty and ninety, twelve between seventy and eighty, and only three under fifty years of age. The centenarian, although "terribly affected in 1859 by a lesion of the heart, so as to be often unable to speak or do anything," succumbed eventually to old age, maintaining, however, that he would have lived fifteen or twenty-five years longer had he never violated the laws of life. He regarded his longevity—such as it was—as due, negatively, to abstention for many years from ardent spirits, tobacco, tea, and coffee; and, positively, to exercises upon the drum and fife, which he began in the time of the war of 1812 and continued while he lived. As he passed his later years in a home for Presbyterian clergymen, it would appear that life in such retreats is not altogether devoid of enlivening incident.

—Mr. Thomas Raleigh, reader in English law at Oxford, addressed a meeting of school-teachers on May 12, his subject being the teaching of civic duty in schools. This teaching he did not connect with the purveying of any special information. A man might be lamentably ignorant as to the constitution of his country and yet possess the judgment necessary to make him substantially a good citizen. He instanced a workingman who revealed in conversation a belief that Ireland was governed by a board of which Mr. Balfour and Mr. John Morley were members. The man did not press this constitutional theory, and in spite of it was able to arrive at substantially patriotic views which made him a good citizen. Mr. S. R. Gardiner had lifted up the teaching of English history to the plane of impartiality which made its study at last, what it should be, a means of preparation for the duties of citizenship. One other change of the same kind was a pressing need: the study of the Bible should be made similarly unpartisan, so that the book of books might no longer serve as an arsenal from which to extract partisan catchwords. Texts from it should no longer be used to confirm the factious temper of angry disputants. A third means of civic education was unattainable under the present unwritten Constitution of England. Other countries, having written summaries of those principles in their political organization which were accepted as unchangeable, could make use of them in schools. The speaker dwelt upon the salutary effect of teaching the Constitution of the United States in American schools. The Constitution was the people's work, and they were proud of it. It represented what no party could wish to change, and accustomed the people to a wholesome conservatism. It also inculcated the wise doctrine that no one arm of government could safely be intrusted with unlimited powers. So far it tended to prevent false hopes from carrying the people away, and led them never to stake the future of their country upon any one scheme of universal re-

form. The speaker analyzed the position of parties, showing that party lines were constantly shifting and being drawn in new places. The Tories were not always conservative, and Radicals were often reactionary. It did not matter which party your pupil might join, but he should be made capable of sympathizing only with the better tendencies in his party. It did not matter so much what you taught him as in what temper your instruction was given. A teacher's opinions were not so important as the character which he displayed in inculcating them.

—The collotype of the very important MS. of the *Yasna*, undertaken by the Clarendon Press of Oxford and at the expense of the University, is finished and in the binder's hands. It is a most impressive piece of work. There are 200 copies of 764 photographs in the actual dimensions of the original (which are ten inches by eight), with handsome margin and executed upon specially prepared paper. Even the tint of the original paper on which the codex is written has been preserved. A preface by Dr. Mills adds the necessary introductory details. This MS. was the hereditary property of Dastur Jamaspji Minocheherji Jamasp Asana, High Priest of the Parsees in Bombay, Ph.D. of Tübingen, and Hon. D.C.L. Oxon. It is a sister MS. to the Zend MS. numbered five in the University Library of Copenhagen, which has been until now regarded as the oldest *Yasna* MS. that bears a date. It was brought to Europe by Rask previously to 1832, afforded Weitergaard his chief help in determining his *Yasna* text, and gave Spiegel the further opportunity to add his Pahlavi translation, which has been our only material for thorough work for more than thirty years. It is, as need hardly be said, treasured by the University Library of Copenhagen as one of its most valued possessions. The MS. which has now been photographed is from the same hand that wrote the Copenhagen codex, and this is manifest not only from the colophon, but from the handwriting. The *Yasna*, as should be known, constitutes about one-third of the Zend Avesta, and consists of several sacred compositions grouped around the *Gāthas*, the original hymns of Zoroaster (Zarathushtra) or his immediate followers. As these hymns are not only the oldest but also the most important parts of the Zend Avesta, the *Yasna* must be regarded as its most valuable section, and its MSS. as the leading documents of the subject. The present codex is therefore of the first importance, and large sums have been offered for it in purchase.

—It was presented to the University unconditionally, at the suggestion of Dr. Mills, whose work on the *Yasna* (vol. xxxi. of the 'Sacred Books of the East') was well received in Bombay, where the leading Parsee citizens have also heavily subventioned his larger work on the *Gāthas*. It turns out to be older than its sister document at Copenhagen. But those competent to judge fully agree that the hasty colophon, which (as so often happened) was scribbled by the weary scribe as the last effort of his severe task, needs to be further corrected. It was so carelessly scrawled that the page in question contained six errors corrected by the penman himself, and two which he did not stop to alter. Suffice it to say that all agree that the MS. was finished not twenty days after November 17, A. D. 1833, when the Copenhagen MS. was completed, but nine months and twenty-five days before the transcriber penned the last stroke on that justly celebrated

codex. The MS. now offered to the learned world in photograph is therefore the oldest *Yasna* MS. with Pahlavi translation which bears a date, and it is more than two hundred years older than the oldest MS. of the 'Rig Veda.' The service rendered to Zoroastrian science by this publication is very great. The Pahlavi translation is of special importance, as it has now become an absolute necessity that persons professing to be specialists in Zend should be able to read the Pahlavi language, not only deciphered, but in its character, and that not alone as printed, but in MS.—an accomplishment which, unfortunately, very few professed Zendists possess or have possessed until very recently.

PEPYS'S DIARY.

The Diary of Samuel Pepys, M.A., F.R.S., Clerk of the Acts and Secretary of the Admiralty. Completely transcribed by the late Rev. Mynors Bright, M.A., from the shorthand manuscript in the Pepysian Library, Magdalene College, Cambridge. With Lord Braybrooke's notes. Edited with additions by Henry B. Wheatley, F.S.A. Vol. I. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1893. Svo. pp. lix., 342, with portrait and illustrations.

It has gone rather hard with the purchasers of Pepys's Diary. Lord Braybrooke brought it out in six hundred pages royal quarto, but, for reasons best known to himself, with large omissions. It was supposed that the whole (or all that was worth transcription) had been published by Mr. Mynors Bright. But the possessors of Mr. Mynors Bright's sumptuous edition in six octavo volumes with plates now learn that this also wants about a fifth of the Diary. The present edition gives the whole. At least nothing is left out except a few passages which the editor assures us are totally unfit for publication. In one case we can easily discern the import of the passage omitted and can see that the decision is right. The present edition promises to be all that could be desired.

Such a resurrection of a man of a bygone century as the publication of Pepys's Diary could not fail to make an immense impression. To question the merits and importance of the book would be literary blasphemy; but we cannot help thinking that they have been rated as high as they deserve. For any one but a social antiquary, a large part of the Diary possesses little more interest than would be possessed by an equally ancient washing-bill or ledger. One entry of Pepys's attendance at the navy office, of the business which he does there, of his taking his morning draught, of his dinner, of his playing on his theorbo, of his game at cards, of his engaging and dismissing his servants, of his orders to his tailor, or even of his more amusing quarrels and reconciliations with his wife, is as good as a hundred; and an ordinary reader, we should think, would soon grow weary of the repetition. The bulk of the Diary is taken up with merely personal or domestic details; public affairs or events, and even social events of a general kind, occupying a comparatively small space. The entries are miscellaneous, the events great and small of each day being punctually set down without literary arrangement or coherence. The work has, in fact, no literary character or attraction except the style, which charms us by its old-fashioned simplicity. Pepys is not to blame. He evidently was not writing, originally or mainly at least, for the amusement of the public, but keeping a record for his own

future information and satisfaction. It would be unfair to look in him, therefore, for delineations like those of Saint-Simon, even if the Englishman had possessed the Frenchman's touch or enjoyed such opportunities as those which the Frenchman enjoyed at Versailles. Nor will the Diary bear comparison with Horace Walpole's letters, which form a social journal of the writer's times.

Pepys was not without the power of description when accident led him to exercise it. His entries about the plague of London might almost have been written by a registrar except when he now and then chances to come across something ghastly; but his account of the fire of London is more graphic, and we feel that we are looking on through his eyes:

"When we could endure no more upon the water, we to a little ale house on the Bankside, over against the Three Cranes, and there staid till it was dark almost, and saw the fire grow, and, as it grew darker, appeared more and more, and in corners and upon steeples, and between churches and houses, as far as we could see up the hill of the City, in a most horrid malicious bloody flame, not like the fine flame of an ordinary fire. Barbary and her husband away before us. We staid till, it being darkish, we saw the fire as only one entire arch of fire from this to the other side of the bridge, and in a bow up the hill for an arch of above a mile long: it made me weep to see it. The churches, houses, and all on fire and flaming at once; and a horrid noise the flames made, and the cracking of houses at their ruine. So home with a sad heart, and there find everybody discoursing and lamenting the fire; and poor Tom Hater came with some few of his goods saved out of his house, which is burned upon Fish-street Hill. I invited him to lie at my house, and did receive his goods, but was deceived in his lying there, the newes coming every moment of the growth of the fire; so as we were forced to begin to pack up our owne goods, and prepare for their removal; and did by moon-shine (it being brave dry, and moonshine, and warm weather) carry much of my goods into the garden, and Mr. Hater and I did remove my money and iron chests into my cellar, as thinking that the safest place."

There is, however, no passage in Pepys so striking as the description in Evelyn's Diary of the scene of revelry in the gallery of Whitehall just before the death of Charles II.

Pepys's Diary may be regarded in three aspects: the personal, the social, and the political. There can be no doubt that the personal parts of it give us a true picture of the man. It seems pretty certain that these parts, at all events, were not written for publication. Of this the occurrence of the passages which the present editor finds it necessary to suppress is a proof. It is true that there are strange passages in Rousseau's 'Confessions,' but they are not of the same kind. Besides, Pepys was totally unlike Rousseau. The Diary ends with a pathetic passage lamenting that, owing to the failure of his eyes, Pepys can himself write it no longer, so that he "must have it kept thenceforth by his people in long-hand, and must be contented to set down no more but is fit for them and all the world to know." This seems to suggest the possibility of publication with the omission of the mere personal passages.

In bequeathing his books and manuscripts to his college, Pepys does not seem to have left specific directions regarding his Diary; perhaps he had not made up his own mind what to do with it when he died. Robert Lowe, in the autobiographic fragment published with his Life, asks what can be the use of keeping accounts or keeping a diary. If you are intrusted with other people's money, he says, you keep accounts, but why keep them against yourself? Accounts are kept against your own extravagance; a diary—a moral diary at least—

is kept against your own infirmities for the purpose of self-recollection and self-improvement. Pepys certainly set out with something of this kind in view; hence the frankness of his self-revelations. The character thus self-portrayed has been commonly taken to be very eccentric, and not only eccentric but comical and even absurd. A painter has represented Pepys strutting into church like a peacock, and looking about to see who was admiring his fine clothes. The truth is that he was a man of sense, a man of the world, a first-rate man of business, and generally esteemed and respected. He seems to have been constitutionally timid, and when he thinks he hears burglars in the house, he rings up his maid-servant instead of getting up himself; but, on the other hand, he remained at his post in London during the plague. Two constituencies at once elected him to Parliament. He was a shrewd and somewhat cynical observer of mankind, royalty not excepted; and though as sincerely religious as a man of rather loose morals could be, he was critical on religious questions and above superstition. He liked to be richly dressed, and liked his fine dresses to be seen. He liked to receive titles and marks of honor. He liked to be able to keep a carriage. He liked a good dinner, and was apt to be put out when his dinner was ill-cooked. He liked preferment; he liked to count up his money. He had his partialities, his rivalries, and his grudges, some of them rather petty. He was moderate in his grief at the death of a man who stood between him and two hundred pounds a year. He sometimes paltered with his own conscience in his efforts to carry out good resolutions, drinking strong waters when he had vowed that he would not drink wine, and evading the oath which he had registered against going to the play by going to a playhouse which, at the time when the oath was registered, had not been built. But who, if he dived into himself, would not find weaknesses of this kind? Perhaps one charm of the Diary is that the writer is holding up the mirror to others as well as to himself. Who shall say that at some of the comical passages the diarist himself did not smile?

Pepys's graver faults—his intemperance and his loose relations with women—are not his peculiarities but those of his generation. The eccentricity consists principally, we suspect, in keeping a record of things which men in general would not think of recording, and many of which they would be too glad to forget. In this respect, no doubt, Pepys presents a curious subject for the psychologist. The impression of comical eccentricity is produced in part, at least, by the language, which, though it appears to us quaint, was only the ordinary language of the writer's time. It does not seem from Pepys's case that journal-keeping is of very much value as an instrument of self-reformation. If he conquers his intemperance, the victory is due more to headaches than to written confessions or even to vows. If he gets over his addiction to frivolous pleasures, it is because for a man of great business capacity his office work has growing attractions. His incontinence, which was his worst failing, he does not get over. If his religion is to be measured by church-going, it certainly declines, for during the earlier period of his Diary he is a regular attendant at church, though he once shifts his place to see a pretty woman; but later on there are long intervals during which he does not attend.

In the social line the Diary affords plenty of material for any literary Hogarth who wishes to paint the Restoration. It was certainly a

curious time. His Sacred Majesty keeps a seraglio and introduces his concubines to his wife. The Queen cannot go into her own dressing-room for fear of finding him with one of the concubines there. The language and demeanor of the ladies of the seraglio are such as might be expected from one of the humblest members of their own profession. The Duke of York, afterwards (as James II.) the great champion of true religion, also keeps his mistresses, though not on the same scale as his brother. His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, Sheldon, the great persecutor of Nonconformists, if the positive statement of Pepys's cousin Roger may be believed, keeps "a wench," and is "as very a wench as can be"; and Pepys himself is witness that the same prelate was amused with a burlesque imitation of a Presbyterian service and sermon "shown him as a rarity." Everybody, from the King downwards, gets drunk; and Prince Rupert, when something is said about drunkenness in the navy, answers that if you are to exclude the drunkards, you would have no officers at all. When a bishop preaches at court against immorality, the court laughs in his face—and no wonder, since the bishop has no scruple to administer the sacrament to a king living in adultery.

Manners are on about a par with morals. The Queen tells people that they lie, and the Earl of Buckingham strikes the Earl of Rochester and pulls off his periwig at a conference between the Lords and Commons. Dueling is common, and, as it shows courage, is almost a redeeming feature of such a society. Two friends, sitting together at a tavern, talk loud. A bystander fancies they are quarreling. Their fancied quarrel becomes a real one. They draw upon each other in the street; both are wounded, and one dies. Shrewsbury, the injured husband, and Buckingham, the adulterer, fight with two seconds on each side. The injured husband and one of the seconds are killed. Pepys does not mention it, but it was the current belief that Lady Shrewsbury, in the disguise of a page, held her seducer's horse during the fight. The same lady sits in her coach while her footmen set upon and wound in nine places Mr. Harry Killigrew, who had impeached her immaculate chastity by giving it out that he had intrigued with her. Traitors are dragged through the streets on their way to be hanged, drawn, and quartered: fine gentlemen go to enjoy the sport and see the heads stuck upon poles. Cock-fighting and brutal prize-fighting of course are in vogue, though, on the subject of prize-fighting, society at the present day can hardly throw stones at the Restoration. The Spanish and French Ambassadors having quarrelled about precedence, the Government leaves them and their trains to decide the question by an appeal to arms, which they do with not a little bloodshed. If two guilds or trades quarrel, they fight it out in the streets, the police not interfering.

Great deference is paid to rank. When persons of quality are present at church, a clergyman commences with "Right worshipful and dearly beloved brethren." Two noblemen amuse themselves by running about the streets naked, and the constable who takes them up is committed by the Lord Chief Justice. A knight, one of the King's physicians, having been arrested for a fuel bill of thirty pounds, the bailiffs are severely whipped and the magistrate has a narrow escape. Meantime, Pepys sees with a half-pitying eye people led away to prison for worshipping in conventicles. He sees with stronger emotion (for he

has a good heart) poor laborers and housekeepers carried off by the press-gangs to serve on board the fleet and their wives weeping for their loss.

"To the Tower several times, about the business of the pressed men, and late at it till twelve at night, shipping of them. But, Lord! how some poor women did cry; and in my life I never did see such natural expression of passion as I did here in some women's bewailing themselves, and running to every parcel of men that were brought, one after another, to look for their husbands, and wept over every vessel that went off, thinking they might be there, and looking after the ship as far as ever they could by moon-light, that it grieved me to the heart to hear them. Besides, to see poor patient labouring men and housekeepers, leaving poor wives and families, taken up on a sudden by strangers, was very hard, and that without press-money, but forced against all law to be gone. It is a great tyranny."

The feeding is pretty gross. For a party of a dozen the dinner is a dish of marrow-bones, a leg of mutton, a loin of veal, a dish of fowls—three pullets and two dozen of larks all in a dish—a great tart, a neat's tongue, a dish of anchovies, a dish of prawns, and cheese. There was much playing at cards; but we must add that there was also a good deal of music. Be it said, also, that these people really enjoyed themselves after their fashion. Their dinner parties were small and social—not so large that the company, excepting those sitting together, might as well have been dining at the same restaurant. Nor did they, under the abused name of hospitality, crush all the people of their acquaintance at once into a hot room, and make them stand there for hours talking against the buzz to people to whom they did not want to talk, on subjects which they did not want to talk about.

The literary tastes of the age were on a par with its general tastes. Pepys is a man of culture and of sufficient literary judgment to refuse to see any extraordinary wit in "Hudibras." Yet he thinks the "Midsummer Night's Dream" insipid and ridiculous, and "Othello" a mean thing, while he extols dramatic trash. On the other hand, there are several indications in the Diary of the growing interest felt in physical science, which presently was to produce Newton, and which led Buckle to regard the reign of Charles II. with enthusiasm as an epoch of progress. The Royal Society, as we know, dates from this time. It had its origin at Oxford in the time of the Commonwealth.

It must not be thought that English society was rotten to the core; if it had been, it could not have recovered itself as it presently did. Pepys testifies decidedly to the worth and good conduct of the old Cromwellian soldiers in a passage which Macaulay has followed with some exaggeration. He also testifies to the worth of the old Commonwealth sailors, compared with the Cavaliers in the navy. There is a passage in which he produces a literary effect, without meaning it, by telling us, after all the distractions of public life, of an old shepherd keeping his sheep on the hill, with his boy reading the Bible to him at his side. He is touched by the aspect of what he calls patriarchal life. Of the sounder and nobler element, some had been seen by Pepys on its way to the gallows and the quartering-block "looking as cheerful as any men could do in that condition"; much was in the jails to which Episcopal tyranny consigned Nonconformists; but there was still a good deal at large.

Pepys's Diary extends over the years from 1659 to 1669, from the beginning of the second Protectorate to the ninth year of Charles II. He was not, during the period that it covers, in the Court, though he was on

the verge of it. Nor was he in Parliament. He had, therefore, no very special opportunities for political information, nor does his Diary reveal any secrets of state. So far as his information goes, he is a very fair-minded observer. He had been a strong Roundhead, and he felt rather nervous in the company of people who had heard what he had said about the execution of Charles I. He welcomed the Restoration, and became attached to the Government, as well as an office-holder, but by no means a violent partisan, and no one has more scathingly exposed, or more patriotically deplored, the administrative abuses of the time. He tells us, no doubt quite truly, that the restoration of the monarchy was hailed with general joy; only we must recollect that the reaction was not against the Commonwealth or the Protectorate, but against the military **anarchy** which followed the death of Cromwell. Of Cromwell's memory Pepys always speaks with respect. He is disgusted at the indignities offered to the great man's corpse, and he evidently listens with sympathy to the popular voice which contrasts the national glory under Cromwell with the humiliation which the nation suffered under Charles II. If he afterwards became rather dangerously identified with James II., this was because James II. paid special attention to the navy, at the head of which he had been as Duke of York, when Pepys was its chief administrator; not from any sympathy with the King's designs against Protestantism or civil liberty. He evidently carried general respect with him to his grave.

RECENT FOLK-LORE PUBLICATIONS.

Voodoo Tales as Told among the Negroes of the Southwest. Collected from original sources by Mary Alicia Owen. Introduction by Charles Godfrey Leland. Illustrated by Juliette A. Owen and Louis Wain. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893. 12mo, pp., xv, 310. *Blackfoot Lodge Tales; The Story of a Prairie People.* By George Bird Grinnell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Crown 8vo, pp., xv, 310.

Cinderella. Three hundred and forty-five variants of Cinderella, Catskin, and Cap o' Rushes, abstracted and tabulated, with a discussion of mediæval analogues, and notes, by Marian Roalfe Cox. With an introduction by Andrew Lang, M.A. London: Published for the Folk-Lore Society by David Nutt. 1893. 8vo, pp. lxxx, 535.

It is now twelve years since Mr. Harris revealed to a delighted public the treasures of humor and wisdom in the unwritten literature of the negroes. The field thus happily discovered has yielded valuable fruit in the subsequent works of the same accomplished collector, and in Mr. Jones's 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast.' The interest in these collections, aside from their entertaining character, consisted in the questions of comparative folk-lore to which they gave rise. The fact that many of the stories were found among the negroes in Brazil pointed to a common origin in Africa, and this has been confirmed by subsequent investigations. Mr. Harris's collections were valuable chiefly for the animal fables which they contained, while Mr. Jones's work afforded a number of stories for which parallels could be found in European mediæval fiction. In both cases, however, the narrators were pure Africans and the modifying influences European. Very little general folk-lore was to be found in these collections. Valuable contributions to this side of the subject have since appeared in

the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* and elsewhere; but by far the most extensive and important is to be found in Miss Owen's recent volume.

As we have just said, the negroes in the collections of Mr. Harris and Mr. Jones were Africans, and if the stories which they brought with them from their native country have been modified or added to, it has been by the Europeans with whom they have since come in contact. In Miss Owen's stories the negroes have been subjected to the influences of the American aborigines, and in many cases it is difficult to decide whether we have to do with an African or with an Indian story. In addition to the popular tales, there is a mass of superstitions, etc., probably of African origin, but found everywhere in a certain state of civilization. It is to be regretted that the author herself has not told us more in regard to the field of collection. It is vaguely stated on the title-page as the "Southwest"; but in Mr. Leland's introduction it is limited to Missouri, where, it is said, "there is all along the border a mixed race of negro and Indian descent, who have inherited a vast stock of the traditions of both races, and combined or blended them strangely into new life."

One of the narrators, Aunt Jinny, or "Granny," as her intimates called her, says of herself: "An' I ain't no common old nigger. I mos'ly ain't no nigger tall. Ise come down fum dem Lenny-Lennape Injins dat hilt de kyentry (country) 'fo' de w'ite folks come dar." Another of the story-tellers is Mme. Angélique Bougareau, generally spoken of as "Mrs. Boogerry," and sometimes as "Big Angy." She says: "Me daddy was gret French hunter, me mammy was chile ter de big chief de Iowas." Her husband was a French Creole, and her dialect is so intricate that Miss Owen despairs of reproducing it, and generally gives an English translation. Still another was a half-breed, her mother having been a negress and her father a Fox Indian. The only pure-blooded African among the story-tellers was "Aunt Mymee," the child of a Guinea sorceress who had fled on board a slaver to escape death at the hands of her countrymen. This sable band held its meetings in Aunt Jinny's cabin and there told stories chiefly for the entertainment of a little white girl, Tow Head, from "The House" in the neighborhood. A rich treat it is they give the child—stories of the fowls of the air and beasts of the field, rabbit stories and snake stories, intermingled with every sort of superstitious belief and observance. The séances generally wind up with a negro song, two of which, "De peaches am ripe by de ole souf wall" and the hymn "Sundown," are especially remarkable.

There are very few points of resemblance between these stories and those in Harris and Jones, or in the various collections of European popular tales. A reminiscence of the "Tar Baby" is found on p. 183. Mr. Leland, in a note, thinks it the original, but is, we believe, mistaken. The original is probably the East Indian jataka of "The Demon with the Matted Hair" (a translation of which may be found in Jacobs's 'Indian Fairy Tales'). More primitive than the Uncle Remus "Tar Baby" are the versions found in Africa (*South African Folk-Lore Journal*, i., p. 70) and in Louisiana (A. Fortier, 'Bits of Louisiana Folk-Lore,' Transactions of the Modern Language Association, vol. iii., p. 102). The fable of the Cat and the Fox (the cat knows but one trick, the fox, a hundred, found in some of the Aesopic collections (see Jacobs's 'The Fables of Aesop,' vol. i., p. 259), is told on p. 165, where the "Pe-

rarer Chicken" takes the place of the Cat. This fable was probably introduced by the Canadian French priests or missionaries. Almost the only other reminiscence of European folk-tales is on p. 225, where may be found a parallel (so far as the episode of "snake-leaves" is concerned) to Grimm No. 16, "The Three Snake-Leaves" (see De Gubernatis, *Zoological Mythology*, ii., 314; Cox, 'Aryan Mythology,' i., 160; Benfey, 'Pant.,' i., 454, *Germania*, xxi., 68).

The great interest and value of Miss Owen's book consist, after all, in the mass of superstitious beliefs and observances which are specifically African, although they ultimately belong to the common stock of all partly civilized peoples. The author has shown considerable skill in the arrangement of her material and the delineation of her characters. If the reader will have a little patience with the somewhat difficult dialect, he will find plenty to reward him even if he is not a student of folklore.

In Mr. Grinnell's book we pass to the tales and beliefs of a people entirely uninfluenced by the races with which they have come in contact, for the few points of resemblance with the tales of the whites must be purely fortuitous. The stories are divided into stories of adventure, stories of ancient time, and stories of Old Man. Nothing can give such a vivid picture of Indian life as the stories of the first class, although with the most realistic incidents are mingled ghosts, werewolves, and helpful animals. There is no great difference between the stories of the first and second class except that the latter are told to explain the origin of some custom or institution. The same incidents of the helpful animals and ghosts are found in both. The third class contains stories told of the chief god of the Blackfoot, Nápi (Old Man). In some of these stories the god plays a serious part, but in others he is represented as malicious, foolish, and impotent, the sport of the animals and elements. Although the various animals play an important part in the book, there are no stories bearing even a remote resemblance to those in Uncle Remus, or even in Miss Owen's book just mentioned.

Of still greater interest than the stories are the important chapters on the history, customs, and religion of the Blackfoot, an admirable exposition which cannot be too highly praised. Indeed, Mr. Grinnell's present work and his "Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales" (reviewed some time ago in this journal) have done more to give a clear conception of Indian life and character than any works in recent years. After reading them it is impossible to believe that the Indian cannot be civilized, or to refrain from shame and indignation at the story of his treatment at the hands of our Government.

The volume by Miss Cox (being the thirty-first publication of the English Folk-Lore Society) is a striking example of the modern method of study. The whole of the portly volume, of over 600 pages, is devoted to the examination of one class of popular tales, those relating to Cinderella in the three forms of "Cinderella," "Catskin," and "Cap O' Rushes," with some similar tales that cannot be included in either of these forms. Three hundred and forty-five variants are given in abstracts and then tabulated more fully. The scope of the work being purely scientific, the original literary form of the tale is not preserved, the incidents only being carefully retained. The preface contains an elaborate discussion of the literary history of the story, with its

geographical distribution, and there are besides copious notes upon the various incidents and their parallels in other tales. The amount of labor involved in the volume is prodigious, and we have nothing but praise for the accuracy and extensive learning of the author.

The general reader will doubtless ask as to the value of this great expenditure of labor, and his question has been partly anticipated by the introduction which Mr. Lang contributes to the work. The early interest in popular tales centred in their possible mythological character; the present interest is in the question of their diffusion. The latter question requires the very careful collection of tales from all parts of the world and their comparison. It is difficult to do this for the whole mass of tales, and therefore one extensive class has been chosen and subjected to the most careful examination. The positive results are not large, perhaps from the very nature of things, and these results cannot with safety be applied to other tales. The fact is that there is truth in all the theories proposed. Some tales have undoubtedly been diffused from India; many others, whatever be their source, have also been diffused throughout Europe, probably from one centre; while others may have had an independent origin in various lands. The difficulty consists in framing a theory which shall account for the diffusion of popular tales in general. Mr. Lang endeavors in his introduction to correct some misapprehensions concerning his theory of the origin and diffusion of popular tales. As to the former, he believes popular tales to be of savage origin, while as to the latter he holds no definite views; some tales may come from India, some may be diffused, some may be independently developed. It may be impossible ever to solve the problem, but some progress will be made when the plots of popular tales are more carefully studied, and for such a purpose works like Miss Cox's are invaluable.

Where Three Empires Meet. By E. F. Knight. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

ONE of the few things we find to criticise in the volume before us is the title, which is misleading. It suggests the Pamir plateau rather than the region further south visited by the author. He has given us a good book of travel—not of exploration, for he went over no new ground; a well-written and entertaining description of lands but little known to the general public. Some of them repay the adventurous sightseer for the no small amount of trouble and discomfort, not to say danger, incurred in getting to them. The writer also offers us much more fighting than we usually find in works of this kind, for he took part, as an amateur officer, in the Hunza-Nagar war of winter before last.

In the peaceful first half of his trip he was in a well-known country. Kashmir does not lie far out of the path of the ordinary globe-trotter, and it is becoming an increasingly fashionable summer resort for Anglo-Indians, especially as the Government at Calcutta is taking all control more and more into its own hands. There is a fine road to the capital, Srinagar, and a railway will probably be built before long. Mr. Knight waxes as enthusiastic as other travellers about "the vale of cool Cashmere" (he himself refrains from quoting from "Lalla Rookh," and professes to be the only person that has ever written about the country without doing so). The natives he admires much less. Handsome and intelligent as they

are, he calls them "among the most despicable creatures on the face of the earth, . . . a cowardly, cringing, cackling race." They are not, and for centuries have not been, the masters of their own State.

"Tartars, Tibetans, Moguls, Afghans, and Sikhs have all in turn overrun the Happy Valley, whose inhabitants have always quietly submitted to each new tyranny. Their very abjectness has been their salvation; for their conquerors, not having to fear them, did not attempt to exterminate them or to dispossess them of their lands, but left them to cultivate the rich soil and carry on their industries—like the bees, to work for the advantage of others, their enslavers appropriating the results of their labor."

The author gives us instances of their almost inconceivable cowardice. On one occasion, as he was with a friend, the owner of two young spaniels—

"The puppies had the luck to 'stick up' the Maharajah's mail. Encountering the daw wallah, they of course badgered him with their playful barkings. The poor wretch threw down his mail-bag, rolled himself in his blanket, and cast himself, screaming for protection, at Bower's feet. We called the dogs off, and left the postman lying on the snow weeping bitterly, his nerves completely upset by this unprovoked attack."

Perhaps some of the reforms which the English are introducing, and which are well described, may do something in time to improve the character of this people.

Western Kashmir, or Ladak, is seldom visited, for not every traveller cares to face the difficulties and hardships of such a journey. This district, without roads, whose capital is 11,500 feet above the sea-level and surrounded by some of the highest mountains in the world, is not easy of access even in summer. It is really a part of mysterious Tibet, which has been repeatedly explored and described of late, though no living Christian has yet been able to penetrate to the sacred city of Lassa. Ladak and the Ladakis reminded Mr. Knight of the flying island of Laputa, "a living satire on the civilization of the world." He gives us an interesting account of the great fair and the miracle play at the lamasery of Himis, but thinks that "it is better to read of Buddhism in the glowing pages of 'The Light of Asia' than to contemplate it from too near." He notes how successful the Tibetan custom of polyandry is in keeping down the population and favoring women's rights.

The Hunza-Nagar expedition was a good specimen of the little wars of which England has had so many. From the almost inaccessible valley in which they lived, one on each side of a river, these two small tribes from time immemorial had raided in all directions whenever there was a caravan to plunder or a village to burn. In their leisure moments they made war on one another, but always united against outsiders. The Kashmir Government had never been able to subdue them; they broke their promises; they would listen to no advice about having a road made into their country; and, worst of all, they had treated in a friendly manner the Russian explorer Gromshevsky. The force sent against them consisted of about a dozen British officers and a few hundred Indian and Kashmir troops, besides allies from the neighborhood. The obstacles to be overcome were great. It would be hard to find a more impassable region; the weather was bitterly severe, the enemy were brave, alert, and well armed and fortified. As so often happens, there was a critical period when failure seemed probable; but the English officers were picked men and their soldiers

were excellent, so all turned out well in the end. Mr. Knight, in order to watch the campaign, volunteered as an officer for the time being; and though he was not assigned the duty of leading any attacks, he had perhaps all the better opportunities for observation. His narrative has something particularly fresh because it is not the work of a professional fighter. We feel that he saw things as we should see them, and we can readily enter into his impressions.

The Prince, or "Thum," of Hunza fled to Turkestan after his defeat, abandoning his castle and treasures to the invaders. It is rather curious to note what are the treasures of a Himalayan robber-chief. In the deserted harem—

"there were a number of little work-boxes of Chinese manufacture, containing cotton and needles from Manchester and Birmingham, artificial flowers, scissors, and bits of unfinished needlework. We also came across tooth-powder, boxes of rouge, pots of pomade and cosmetics; all these from St. Petersburg shops. There were parasols, too, scraps of silk, old robes and scarves, and other things of little value that women who had to pack up and fly in haste would be likely to leave."

The Thum's own possessions included Martini-Henry, Winchester, Spencer, Snider, Enfield, Berdan, and other rifles and firearms of many sorts; also—

"a European armchair, apparently of English manufacture, and two large mirrors with gaudy frames of flashing glass prisms, the sort of ornaments one would expect to see in some shady French *brasserie*; . . . several good telescopes and field-glasses; brazen lamps of elegant design; a large musical box from Paris; papier-maché writing-desks and workboxes; a colored portrait of his Imperial Majesty the Czar and another of the Czarevitch; some packing-cases full of cheap looking-glasses," etc., etc.

• "Where Three Empires Meet" treats less of political questions than the title might lead us to suppose. The author refers occasionally to the Russians, and we can see that he fully sympathizes with the English policy of gobbling up all the small States which are exposed to Russian "aggressions," or through which runs some sort of a mountain pass. The world hardly appreciates how steadily and quietly the frontiers of India have been pushed ahead since the war scare of 1885. It is the British Empire, not the Muscovite, which has grown in Central Asia, as well as elsewhere, in the last half dozen years. The rivalry between the two is commercial as well as political. English and Russian goods compete with varying success for the markets of Persia, Afghanistan, and Turkestan. We were once told by a large native merchant in northern Persia that Russian wares were as good as English, but not so cheap. On one occasion Mr. Knight's party met a travelling Afghan merchant who

"was wearing over his clothes a *choga*, or robe of Russian chintz. Bower asked him why he did not purchase English chintz. 'It is not of nearly such good material,' he replied, 'as the Russian; besides, the English do not make striped chintz such as we like, but of strange and unpleasing design.' It seems that some of our manufacturers do not study the tastes of their Asiatic customers so much as they might. Some of the chintzes sent out here are indeed remarkable. A short time since all the notables in Chitral were arrayed in gay robes covered with representations of a piroetting ballet-girl, a large consignment of cotton stuff with this elegant design having arrived from England."

The above quotations will, we think, serve to show that the book under review may be read with pleasure as well as profit. The style is easy, pleasant, and well suited to a work of

this class. The illustrations, from the author's photographs, are good and have a proper connection with the text.

Contribution to Our Knowledge of Seedlings. By the Right Hon. Sir John Lubbock, Bart. D. Appleton & Co. 1893. 2 vols. 8vo.

READERS of Darwin's 'Power of Movement in Plants' remember with pleasure the prominence which is there given to the varied adaptations of seedlings to their surroundings. The extrication of the embryo from its protecting coats, and the utilization of the sufficient store of food provided by the parent plant, are among the most interesting chapters in the life-history of plants. The movements in response to contact, to moisture, to warmth, and in some cases to light, which are made by the tip of the root of the young plant, are declared rightly by Darwin to be suggestive of co-ordinated action. "It is hardly an exaggeration," he remarks, "to say that the tip of the radicle, thus endowed, and having the power of directing the movements of the adjoining parts, acts like the brain of one of the lower animals; the brain being seated within the anterior end of the body, receiving impressions from the sense organs, and directing the several movements." The movements of the seed leaves, and their relations to the temperature of the air which early strikes them after their unfolding, are likewise attractive in a high degree. In fact, there is hardly any aspect presented by the seed or its escaping embryo which can fail to secure the earnest attention of biologists. The interest which the subject possesses has led to innumerable investigations in regard to minor questions, and to the main question in which they are all comprised—namely, to what extent does the seedling carry ancestral characters, plainly visible in its earliest stages; to what extent are its very earliest habits and shapes to be regarded as survivals of habits and shapes possessed by a remote ancestry? The difficulties which surround the attempts to answer this question are far more numerous and serious than would appear at first, and more than one assiduous investigator regards the question as a veritable enigma.

Seed-leaves differ widely in most instances from any of the subsequent foliage, both in structure and in shape. In many groups, the seed-leaves, or cotyledons, in closely allied species, are of nearly the same general character. If this prevailed in the majority of cases, or if we had only these to judge from, we should conclude that these early shapes are as truly indicative of relationship as is the occurrence of fixed sexual characters in the adult plant. But the fact is, there is not the slightest uniformity apparent in a very large number of genera and species. Species which we regard as closely related may have the most diverse seed-leaves, and these may unfold in totally different ways, so that one is forced to regard these characters of texture and shape of seed-leaves as largely adaptive. In order that we may see whether under these adaptive characters there may not be masked inherited features which we may get at somehow, we must have a large amount of material.

Sir John Lubbock's treatise is a very valuable contribution of material to be utilized in this way. He has brought together an immense amount of information in regard to the seedlings of the chief natural families, and has illustrated the subject by more than six hundred excellent woodcuts. That the treatise is interesting reading, except to a specialist, no one

would be likely to affirm, but that it will prove very attractive to any thoughtful person who cares to take a hand in reading puzzles, is clear. For the latter purpose, however, it must be read in the light of what is known in regard to the native countries of the plants under consideration. That is to say, supposing we have in mind a given species which is specially adapted to a very dry climate, while its immediate relatives belong in a moist climate, we should not look for identical features. Now, take away the specific adaptations, and see if, in what is left behind, there are any features common to the two groups.

Sir John has not given this information, since it did not enter into the purpose of his work, but the correlation of such facts with the vast mass of facts brought together by him in regard to the shapes of seedlings will be rendered now a much easier task than at any previous time. That the problem will soon engage anew the attention of many workers is evident from the interest which is manifested in certain out-of-the-way places, for instance, among intelligent gardeners and florists, whose chief concern may be thought to lie in the plants raised from seedlings rather than in the seedlings themselves. A good example of the interest in this matter was accidentally discovered the other day. There fell into our hands a few transfer-impressions of curious seedlings, all of which were well executed. Additional search revealed the fact that they were made by a gardener who had prepared many hundreds of different ones for his own study. An examination of these actual nature-prints indicates at once the charm that the study of seedlings possesses for an observant person fond of plants.

York. By James Raine. [Historic Towns. Edited by E. A. Freeman and W. Hunt.] Longmans. 1893. Pp xi, 223.

The Martial Annals of the City of York. By the Rev. Cesar Caine. Sixty illustrations. London: C. J. Clark. 1893. Pp. xi, 287. 8vo.

'YORK' is one of the best in the series of "Historic Towns," and yet it strikingly illustrates the defective scope of the whole series. Dr. Raine is admirably fitted to write a history of York and to add much to our knowledge of the subject. But he has not utilized his equipment to any considerable extent, because the book before us has been "made to order." He has been cramped by the baneful limitations of the series. Hence the body of the work (Part I.), though well written, is necessarily a review of facts already quite well known. The authors of works in this series are required to consider "the general historic position" of the town, "the part that it played in the general history of the kingdom"; "the purely local history of each place . . . will be dealt with chiefly as it throws light on its general position." In other words, it is a series on the history of municipalities which designedly relegates the real municipal history to the background. The result is that the nine volumes relating to English towns thus far published are little more than enlarged guide-books of the orthodox pattern: they present an outline of the general history of England with a given town as the central point of interest; they chronicle the battles fought in or near the town, the visits of kings, its ravages by the Danes, etc. Most of these facts are of purely local interest, and are recorded in the older histories and guide-books of the borough, or they are to be found in the general histories

of England. Clearly the mistake of the series is that it neglects "the purely local history," especially the development of religious, social, and municipal institutions, on which information is much needed and is easily accessible in the local archives. But the needs of historical knowledge are not taken into account by many publishers.

This criticism of the series has already been made in these columns. It is, however, particularly applicable in connection with Dr. Raine's book, because he is clearly an able and well-equipped historical scholar who is trammelled by being obliged to move in a prescribed rut. Under such adverse conditions he could scarcely have written a better book; but if he had been allowed to follow his own inclinations, he could doubtless have made a substantial contribution to municipal history. Dr. Raine's own sentiments regarding the scope of the series may be surmised from what he says in his Preface:

"The writer's chief regret, in bidding farewell to his book, is that the requirements, so far as space is concerned, of this series of histories of towns forbid anything like the treatment which such a subject as 'York' ought properly to receive. He is painfully conscious of this on every page, but especially in the Third Part—the history of the Municipality and City—which requires more space and greater elaboration than can be given."

This last statement also applies to the Second Part—Church History, Education, and Charities—which, as far as it goes, is admirable; it gives briefly an array of facts and reflections difficult to find elsewhere. The Third Part also contains some new data, which Dr. Raine has found in the local archives; for example, the reference to an hereditary *lagaman civitatis* in 1106 (p. 192). In fact, the proportions of the work should have been reversed: eight chapters (pp. 1-146) should have been devoted to "purely local history," and the other three chapters (pp. 146-210) to general history. If the author had been allowed free scope, he would not have been obliged to review well-known events of general history, but would have been able to reveal much that now lies buried in the local archives which he seems to have explored.

The following extract illustrates Dr. Raine's style and method of treatment in Parts II. and III.:

"York, in mediaeval times, might well be called a city of churches. The clergy, secular and religious, could not be estimated at less than five hundred. At every corner you met an ecclesiastic in his peculiar dress; almost at every hour a service was going on. You were often coming upon the bellman bidding people to some month-mind, or anniversary, with its customary dole, or a funeral, or some procession or other. The bells would be almost continually sounding. . . . Every guild-meeting, trade and otherwise [sic], opened with devotional offices. I have seen many a letter and bill of account which is headed with the sacred name. . . . It may be asked, Were these religious influences deep or trifling? We are bound to think that they were deep from the evidence we possess. That there were great and general abuses, social and moral, it is impossible to deny. . . . There would be few more painful pictures than those which could be drawn of the depravity of these ecclesiastics as shown by the correction books at the minster. . . . Still, the hearts of the people in York were not turned away from their old forms and belief. They clung to them and suffered for their adhesion."

"The chief of all the charitable institutions in the city was the great hospital dedicated to St. Leonard. . . . In the infirmary [in 1280] there were 229 men and women, nearly twice as many as the York Hospital of the present day can hold. . . . There were twenty-three boys in the orphanage. . . . In 1293 there is another MS. survey of the hospital . . . and in it is stated that 232 loaves and 256 herrings were given away every week in charity at the

gate; thirty-three dinners and fourteen gallons of beer were distributed every Sunday, together with eight dinners for lepers. On the same day each prisoner in the castle, numbering at that time 310, received a small loaf. . . . It is a melancholy fact that an institution like St. Leonard's should have been suppressed when the monasteries fell, as if people ceased to be ill when Henry VIII. changed his religious policy" (pp. 184-188).

The author, while generally accurate, has made a few slips. On p. 191 he seems to assert that the city of York had an ealdorman and a sheriff at the time of the Norman Conquest; he probably intended the statement to apply to the shire. It is misleading to call the *firma burgi* "a tax," and to say that "whenever a burgh acquired the Firma Burgi it became a commune" (p. 192). The charter of John grants the citizens of York a gild merchant and hances, not "houses" (p. 193). The Wars of the Roses do not suffice to explain the decay of York and other municipalities in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries (p. 202). The merchant adventurers of York can scarcely be said to occupy the position of the old *gilda mercatoria* (p. 207).

Mr. Caine deals only with the military history of York. He gives "some account of the military persons, forces, sieges, battles, revolts, etc., associated with this enchanting old city." He also describes the various changes which its defences have undergone since the earliest times. His aim has been to make the

book "suitable for popular reading." He begins by giving a detailed account of the Roman legions in North England and their relations to York, which was the military centre of Roman Britain. He then devotes a chapter to each of the later periods of English history down to the present time.

The work is not as scholarly as Dr. Raine's. There is no indication of any acquaintance with the original sources, nor has Mr. Caine used the best authorities in dealing with the general history of England; for example, he takes his data from the Norman period, not from Freeman, but from Thierry, and he confides in the statements of Ingulph (p. 85). His account of the Anglo-Saxon army and of the feudal system (pp. 35, 36, 64, 65) is crude, and is based on antiquated or unreliable authorities. He cites Dugdale's great work on monasteries as the 'Monastici Anglicani' (p. 76). But in spite of these and other blemishes, the book may be recommended to those interested in the history of York as "suitable for popular reading." It is well printed on good paper, and the numerous illustrations deserve much praise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bardin, Adolphe. *Minine et Pojarski.* [Bibliothèque de Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Berthet, Jean. *Ximénes.* [Bibliothèque de Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Bertin, Georges. *Joseph Bonaparte en Amérique.* Paris: Librairie de la Nouvelle Revue.
Bird's-Eye Views and Guide to Chicago. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.

Colin, Lady M., and French-Sheldon, M. *Everybody's Book of Correct Conduct.* Harpers. 75 cents.
De Witt, Rev. John. *What Is Inspiration?* Randolph. \$1.
Greene, Mrs. S. P. McL. *Vestry of the Basins.* Harpers. 50 cents.
Hale, Rev. E. E. *A New England Boyhood.* Cassell. \$1.
Hardon, W. D. *An Inquiry Into the Truth of Dogmatic Christianity.* Putnam's. \$1.50.
Heimburg, W. *Miss Mischief.* Robert Bonner's Sons. \$1.50.
Johnston, Prof. H. P. *The Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay, 1794-1826.* Vol. IV. Putnam's. \$5.
King, Anna E. *Brown's Retreat, and Other Stories.* Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
Kinney, Abbot. *Tasks by Twilight.* Putnam's. \$1.
Kipling, Rudyard. *Many Inventions.* Appleton's.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Anatole. *The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians. Part I. The Country and its Inhabitants.* Putnam's. \$3.
Liorel, Jules. *Kabylie du Jourjura.* Paris: Ernest Leroux.
MacDonald, George. *Heather and Snow.* Harpers. \$1.25.
Mackay, Gascoigne. *Poems, Dramatic and Democratic.* London: Elliot Stock.
Matthews, Brander. *The Decision of the Court.* Harpers. 50 cents.
O'Nan, Georges. *The Ironmaster.* Worthington Co. 25 cents.
Oliphant, Mrs. Thomas Chalmers, Preacher, Philosopher and Statesman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
Ottolengui, Rodriguez. *A Conflict of Evidence.* Putnam's. \$1.
Pardon, G. F. *Opera Stories.* G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Philpotts, Eden. *Summer Clouds, and Other Stories.* Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Ross, Albert. *An Original Sinner.* G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Sweet, Henry. *A Primer of Historical English Grammar.* Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Thomson, Prof. J. J. *Notes on Recent Researches in Electricity and Magnetism.* Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Trollope, Anthony. *Phineas Finn.* 3 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$3.75.
Wallace, G. R. *Princeton Sketches: The Story of Nassau Hall.* Putnam's. \$2.
Weineck, Oscar. *A Common Sense Guide to English for Foreigners.* F. W. Christern.
Wilson, H. R. *The Russian Refugee.* Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.

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